

# THE SOUTHWESTERN SOCIAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY

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### THE SOCIAL SCIENCES\*

JAMES B. TRANT

*Louisiana State University*

In attempting to discuss the Social Sciences one feels that it might be well to begin by stating the principle by which he expects to limit the field. It seems best, therefore, to say that in this paper the term Social Sciences will be used with reference to the scientific study of human social relations, irrespective of whether studied at the elementary or graduate levels or whether studied on a general or a professional basis. With this in mind it is intended here to approach the subject with reference to the forces leading to the development of the field as a whole; to the problems confronting its progress; and to the forces which are inherent in our present arrangements to foster continued development of the Social Sciences.

The Social Sciences were given considerable attention in the earliest records of civilization, but they were usually so limited in scope and so ineffective in purpose that it was not until modern times that a coherent scheme may be thought of in connection with a system of social studies. The rapid development of their study in the schools was delayed still longer due to the powerful influence of the classical curriculum which dominated the educational system until within comparatively recent times, and even then the Social Sciences came in only following the period in which the scientific came to dominate the classical curriculum. Here reference will be made only very briefly to the chief events

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\*Presidential address delivered before the Southwestern Social Science Association, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April 15, 1938.

which have stood out in the limelight as the dominating influences in the changes that have occurred since toward the close of the sixteenth century.

The scientific discoveries of the seventeenth century greatly weakened the ecclesiastical control of men's opinions in the domain of natural phenomena, and the "sense-realist" movement, headed by Francis Bacon, shook the scholasticism and humanism of the time by advocating knowledge of nature as the only fruitful knowledge.<sup>1</sup> These events more or less provided a basis for the weakening of classical education and a strengthening of the scientific. Objection from the classicists, however, prevented much development either in Science or in the Social Sciences at that time.

Two centuries later Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-1841) gave new life to the movement against the classical curriculum by advocating training in the Sciences and in the Social Sciences.<sup>2</sup> Herbart rejected the theory of the "faculty psychology" of the mind and the dogma of formal discipline.<sup>3</sup> He argued that man's interests came from his intercourse with people and his experience with things, and for those reasons the main branches of instruction should be:<sup>4</sup>

- (1) Science, including mathematics and the natural sciences.
- (2) Social or historical, including language, literature, and history.

It is thus that Herbart laid down the lines along which the educational system in both Germany and the United States has developed during the last hundred years. In reality, his influence greatly encouraged a further development in the sciences which were already being taught, and encouraged the development of the Social Sciences.

During the nineteenth century there were three powerful influences at work which revolutionized the content of the educational curriculum during the last half of that period.<sup>5</sup> These were:

- (1) The writings of Herbart.
- (2) Numerous new and significant scientific discoveries.

<sup>1</sup>Duggan, *A Student's History of Education*, p. 169.

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 244-260.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 246.

<sup>4</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 247.

<sup>5</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 250, 274-284.

## (3) Herbert Spencer (1820-1903).

By the end of the third quarter of the nineteenth century science, which had long been taught in the schools, was placed on a parity with classical studies.<sup>6</sup> At the same time, as the classical began declining, the foundation work for the development of the Social Sciences was laid.

Herbert Spencer approached the problem of what should be taught in the schools by asking "What Knowledge is Most Worth", and by answering that it is the knowledge that prepares one for complete living.<sup>7</sup>

As a means of determining what field of study should be approached first and in what order the others should be approached, he classified man's activities into five categories in the order of the importance he placed upon each. These categories and the sort of training needed in each are as follows:<sup>8</sup>

1. The preservation of life and health, for which a knowledge of certain of the sciences was necessary.
2. Vocational activities, for which a knowledge of certain of the sciences was necessary.
3. Home making activities, for which one must know some of the sciences and some of the social sciences.
4. Social and political activities, for which a knowledge of certain of the social sciences was necessary.
5. Leisure activities, for which a knowledge of aesthetics, literature, and music was necessary.

It can be seen from the above that Spencer was primarily an advocate of the teaching of Science and that his emphasis on the Social Sciences came far down in his scale of importance. At the same time, his influence on the Social Sciences has been much greater than the apparent importance he placed on them. One can fully realize this from the Spencer books he had to read in graduate courses in several of the Social Sciences and from the importance placed on these books by the professors in charge of the courses. In addition to his numerous writings in the scientific field, where his major interest lay, and his writings in Ethics and Philosophy, he wrote books on Education, Psychology, Political Science, and

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<sup>6</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 273.

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 274.

<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 275.

Sociology, and was sub-editor of the *Economist* for five years. Some of these books influenced greatly the differentiation and specialization of the Social Sciences, and that influenced their later departmentalization. His books in the realm of social phenomena, therefore, mark him on the one hand as one of those great thinkers who had a rather complete grasp of Social Science, and on the other hand as the one who provided the basis for specialization in the various fields of the Social Sciences. But the fact must be recognized that his emphasis on the teaching of the sciences so influenced school men that the scientific curriculum soon came to dominate the classical curriculum which began to decline, and the scientific has continued to so dominate education that the Social Sciences have been unable to catch up.

But great progress has been made in the field of the Social Sciences in the United States. During the last half and particularly the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the Social Sciences began to come into popular favor. New courses were added, new departments were created, and in many of the universities a few of the Social Sciences grew into professional schools.

While law schools had their beginning in this country before 1800, it was not until about the end of the first quarter of the last century that real development in that field began in connection with the great universities,<sup>9</sup> but even then it was only during the last half of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth that rapid development came.<sup>10</sup> In 1899 there were only 86 law schools in the United States, but by 1929 there were 170.<sup>11</sup>

Education had considerable development in the normal schools during the second quarter of the last century, and as departments or chairs in the colleges and universities, but it was not until about 1875 that the development of the teachers' college within the universities began.<sup>12</sup> By 1935 there were 153 teachers' colleges.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Wills, Elbert Vaughan, *The Growth of American Higher Education*, pp. 91-94.

<sup>10</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 95.

<sup>11</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 95.

<sup>12</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 115-125.

<sup>13</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 124.

Departments of commerce had a beginning in a few of the universities during the second quarter of the nineteenth century, but it was not until 1881 that the Wharton School was established at the University of Pennsylvania, and it was not until 1898 that it had a companion.<sup>14</sup> Since 1900, however, there has been a rapid growth in schools and departments of commerce. In 1915 there were forty schools of commerce.<sup>15</sup> There are probably 200 schools and departments of commerce today.

Journalism traces its genealogy back to the establishment of the "press scholarships" by General Lee at Washington College in 1869, but no school of Journalism was established until 1908 when the University of Missouri set about establishing its famous school. It did not go into operation, however, until 1912. Journalism has had a rapid growth, but information as to the number of schools in existence is not available, though in 1936 the estimate of the number of schools and departments reached the high figure of 532.<sup>16</sup>

A more recent professional development in the Social Sciences has come about through the establishment of undergraduate or graduate schools of public administration in connection with the Political Science departments on the one hand and the development or organization of either undergraduate or graduate schools of public welfare in connection with the department of Sociology on the other. These two new developments have been so recent that it has not been recognized by those who have been inclined to separate the pure social sciences from the applied Social Sciences. The professional development in these two fields, however, has probably gone on at a more rapid rate during the last four years than the professional developments in the other fields of the Social Sciences went on at any time.

In the development of the Social Sciences within the colleges and universities they have aligned themselves with each other or with other fields on a functional basis rather than that they have attached themselves on a pure Social Science or applied Social Science basis. Most of the Social Sciences first developed out of the social tenets in the field of Philosophy or sprang from the older Social Science—

<sup>14</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 98.

<sup>15</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 99.

<sup>16</sup>Lee, A. M., *Daily Newspaper in America*, p. 661.

History. In general, History, Government, Human Geography, and Sociology have remained as departments in the Liberal Arts colleges, but where one of the Social Sciences has developed a professional curriculum or a professional school it has usually carried with it another of the Social Sciences where their functional developments were too closely allied to separate them. It is thus that Psychology has in many cases been attached to Education. Agricultural Economics has gradually attached itself to the College of Agriculture because of its functional relation to that field. The development of Schools of Business or Colleges of Commerce has come about to some extent through Economics, taking in Accounting in the earlier days. Then the two of them produced Business Administration or the field of Management. Then they attached themselves to this newer development and remained in most cases as a functionally attached group of studies.

Accounting not only serves (along with Economics) as a basis for Business Administration, but has also developed its own professional curriculum.

Psychology has developed into professional work not only in connection with Education but also in connection with medicine and business.

Anthropology, on the other hand, has remained in Liberal Arts as a pure Social Science, but has frequently attached itself to the Geology department, not on a functional basis but on a basis of facilitating its teaching.

During the last four or five years the development of the Public Welfare Graduate Schools in connection with or on top of the Sociology departments and the development of the Public Administration Schools in connection with or on top of Political Science departments has greatly reduced the number of the pure Social Sciences in the sense that they have been referred to in the past. This is true because the development of a Social Science into a professional school has had a tendency to set it apart somewhat from the other Social Sciences, even though the pure social science nature of the subject may be treated as thoroughly as before. But the setting apart of each as it develops a professional course of study has somewhat militated against a unity of action and influence for the development of the Social Sciences as a whole as compared to the natural and physical sciences. Some of the professional schools in the field of the Social Sciences have

even required a larger number of hours of work in the field of the natural and physical sciences for the Bachelor of Arts degree than they have of the Social Sciences outside of their own courses. The Liberal Arts colleges have almost universally required a larger number of hours in the physical and natural sciences than in the Social Sciences until very recent years. Before the World War the Liberal Arts colleges generally required about twice as many hours in the sciences as in the Social Sciences for the Bachelor of Arts degree. But the great emphasis placed on social training since the World War has led to a great increase in the requirements of the Social Sciences. A great many of the Liberal Arts colleges now require as many hours in the Social Sciences as they do in the other sciences for the Bachelor of Arts degree. A survey of the current catalogues of all the state universities, however, shows that on the average 10.39 semester hours are required in the Social Sciences while 12.37 hours are required in the other sciences for the Bachelor of Arts degree. This indicates that the influence of the natural and physical sciences continues to be greater in the general field of education than the Social Sciences. This greater influence of the natural and physical sciences is somewhat offset by the rapid development of professional schools in the fields of the Social Sciences. There is, of course, no necessary relationship between the higher science requirements for the Bachelor of Arts degree and the development of the professional schools in the Social Sciences.

But the growth in the study of the Social Sciences in recent years, as indicated by equal requirements for the Bachelor of Arts degree to that of the sciences, and the tremendous demand for social training has been very pleasing to its friends, but is causing alarm among those who still want to give the other sciences a major place in the educational system. The result is that the Social Sciences are in a great state of flux.

In the University of Oregon, for instance, emphasis on the Social Sciences has become so great that they may be substituted for the science requirements for the Bachelor of Science degree.<sup>17</sup> In addition to that, a College of Social Science has been organized (1932). It includes the major departments of Anthropology, Economics, Geography, History,

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<sup>17</sup>University of Oregon catalogue, 1937-38, page 53.

Political Science, Psychology, and Sociology.<sup>18</sup> It also includes the non-major department of Religion. The department of Philosophy is administered jointly by the College of Social Science and the College of Arts and Letters.

Since the College of Social Science does not include the work contained in those Social Science departments which have already been professionalized, one cannot guess the effect the professionalization of work in Political Science, Psychology, or Sociology will have on the set-up of this college.

On the other hand, President Conant of Harvard University has recently condemned the shifting of the fields of concentration to the Social Sciences by Harvard college students.<sup>19</sup> The change in concentration referred to by President Conant is the increase in the number of undergraduate students majoring in Economics and Government and the decline in the number of students concentrating in the "Arts and Letters". Those concentrating in Economics increased between 1926 and 1936 from 15.7 per cent of the undergraduate majors to 16.5 per cent, and those concentrating in Government increased from 5.5 per cent to 12.3 per cent of the undergraduate majors. Those concentrating in the "Arts and Letters" have declined from 42.4 per cent in 1926 to 30.1 per cent of the majors in 1936, and those concentrating in the Social Sciences increased for the same period from 32 per cent to 42.9 per cent of the undergraduate majors. He states that "This shifting seems to me unfortunate. If continued in the same direction at the same rate for another decade, it might prove disastrous." History has regularly claimed about 10 per cent of the concentrators and the next largest department, Chemistry, has 5.5 per cent.

President Conant's criticism of the trend of the Social Sciences among Harvard's undergraduate students is based on the particular situation at Harvard rather than on objections to any specific subject. It is based on the theory that heavy emphasis on any subject tends to upset the "intellectual climate." That theory is probably more applicable at Harvard than at most places because of the House System there, which is based on the belief that students do much to educate them-

<sup>18</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 123-124.

<sup>19</sup>*Report of the President of Harvard University to the Board of Overseers, 1935-36*, pp. 19-20.

*New York Times*, December 12, 1937, p. 4n, Section 2, c. 8.

selves by their informal discussions. Heavy concentration in any field, of course, would tend to limit the discussions to that field and prevent the breadth that would occur from a wider field of topics. It is just possible, however, that President Conant is thinking of all of the Social Sciences together as comprising only a small field rather than realizing that each of the Social Sciences comprises a rather broad field of concentration. Criticism of the number concentrating in the field of English ten years ago is somewhat lacking even though the percentage, 20.8 per cent, of undergraduate concentrators was greater than the high point of concentration in Economics, 17.2 per cent in 1931. The decline in English to 12.9 per cent of the concentrators in 1931 still gives it a place second only to Economics. Government was slightly less than English, and History was nearly 3 per cent of the concentrators less than English. The limitation of the field of the Social Sciences to those which have not been professionalized does restrict the breadth as compared to its real width when those that have been professionalized are recognized as Social Sciences. Furthermore, breadth of the field of History, of the field of Economics, of the field of Government, of the field of Sociology, if capable of actual measurement, might prove amazing to the scientist or to the classicist.

At New York University new emphasis is being placed on the Social Sciences. On September 12, 1937,<sup>20</sup> it was announced that New York University would introduce this year a new four-year college course from which it was expected to turn out graduates who would possess both training and culture. The courses in the curriculum include five of the Social Sciences, Literature, a Modern Language, Philosophy, and a Physical Science. Dr. George R. Collins, Associate Dean of the School of Commerce, stated that "the old horizontal method tightly compartmentalizes the idea of 'training to live' and the idea of training 'to earn a living' and tends to exaggerate presumptive differences between these two objectives. Such a curriculum overlooks the fact that the business man really does live life as a 'whole' and that the phases of preparation for life as a 'whole' can be treated coincidentally and can be integrated."

This new plan at New York University does not com-

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<sup>20</sup>*New York Times*, Section 2, p. 3n, C. 3.

partmentalize at all. It conforms to a great extent to the practice of a great many universities in this field where an attempt has been made to give the student general education for cultural purposes and specialized education for business.

A very subtle method of discriminating against or neglecting certain of the Social Sciences has been the refusal of credit in the general college course for those Social Sciences which have developed into professional schools. There are a number of Liberal Arts colleges, however, which have taken a very encouraging attitude toward the professionalized Social Sciences by allowing them for both minor and elective credit. There is, of course, little reason for discriminating against or neglecting the Social Sciences which have developed into professional schools. They are still Social Sciences; they have merely had the practical application of professional procedure added to them.

The most difficult factors, which in many instances are militating against the Social Sciences, or are in other cases encouraging them are:

1. The first of these is the old orientation course in the Social Sciences which became pretty popular following the World War. As an orientation or introductory course to the Social Sciences, it had a rather popular appeal and served a useful purpose. In the same manner it could still be useful and popular. But in many cases in recent years it has got into the curriculum largely as a basic course and as a substitute for one or more of the basic courses in the various divisions of the Social Sciences. This inevitably places the course in conflict with its original purpose. That is true because an orientation course must be descriptive and general and must cover sufficient introductory material in each of the Social Sciences to enable the student to grasp the direction and significance of the Social Sciences. A basic course, on the other hand, cannot limit itself to the descriptive and general material in a subject. It must give the student a pretty thorough understanding of the principles governing the materials within its subject, as well as give him a rather wide survey of the more specialized phases of the subject. The Social Sciences are faced, therefore, with the problem of restricting the orientation course

to its purpose as such, or to tolerating it as a substitute for a basic course.

2. The second factor which may be good for the Social Sciences in one case and bad in another is the development of the junior college or junior division in the universities. The answer to this apparent paradox is more or less dependent upon the purpose of the junior college. The two reasons given in most cases for the organization of the junior college or junior division are:

- (1) To continue general and basic education for two more years.
- (2) To orient the student through exploratory courses so as to enable him better to decide on his field of specialization.

When the first of these purposes is carried out, there is little chance for the second, because they are far different in purpose. If the second is carried out, the first will have to be neglected. These two purposes may be somewhat compromised, as has been done in a number of universities in recent years by requiring Freshman students to place a large part of their time on general and basic courses and by allowing them to elect at least one of the technical courses in the field in which the student believes he would like to specialize. That is not wholly satisfactory, but, like other compromises, it has served to help bridge the gap between high school and college.

There are a number of other points which might be set up for the junior college and torn down by the critics. There are, for instance, those who would set up a junior college within the university as a means of creating a greater number of terminal divisions within the educational system, but not terminal courses, as a means of encouraging students to continue education to its more advanced stages. There are other equally distinguished educators who are opposed to creating a greater number of terminal divisions because they believe that such tends to cause duplication of effort and prevents a unified program of education from coming into existence. President Hutchins of the University of Chicago has recently condemned the junior colleges on the latter grounds. By a few it is believed that terminal courses within most groups of study should be provided before reaching terminal divisions. This is on the ground that students tend

to withdraw in great numbers at the end of each terminal division and that they should be given terminal courses before they drop out.

This is a serious matter for the Social Sciences in general and for the social outlook of the people. Dropping out before completing more than a junior college course and without terminal vocational courses would throw a great number of young men and young women out of educational pursuits before they have either learned a sufficient amount of the Social Sciences to know how to live and before they have gone far enough in a professional or a vocational curriculum to be able to earn a living.

President Hutchins, however, believes that the dropping out of those students who are not of an especially high caliber would be desirable.<sup>21</sup> At the same time he is opposed to the junior college as it now exists because of the short periods into which it breaks the entire educational system. He believes the junior college prevents the Liberal Arts college from doing a satisfactory job because of the limitation of time allowed after completing the junior college before receiving the degree. He proposes, therefore, to eliminate the junior college system by taking the last two years of high school and the first two years of college and throwing them together as the general college. He would then grant the Bachelor's degree to those completing work in the general college. This would definitely encourage withdrawal from school and, he believes, would leave only those who were highly qualified for further study to continue their academic course, which, according to him would be made a three-year period leading to the Master's degree (or no doubt to a professional degree if that were their choice as represented by the course of study selected).

His proposal is apparently based on the English system and has been rather widely accepted by many educators. The chief objection to it appears to be its restriction of the American system of mass education. It is fundamentally connected with the arguments which maintained the classical curriculum and later the scientific curriculum in the face of an increasing demand for training in the Social Sciences as a means of preparing students to live and to earn a living in a more complex civilization than that which existed in the

<sup>21</sup>*Educational Record*, January, 1938, pp. 5-11.

latter part of the Middle Ages. The proposal of President Hutchins must be praised as an excellent program for those who will go forward on a Liberal Arts program, but it endangers the growth of the Liberal Arts college by limitation of numbers. It may be criticized on the ground that it does not provide for adequate vocational training in the earlier part of the student's program; it does not provide for the technological courses that are desirable as pre-professional courses; and it over-emphasizes the necessity of dropping a great many students out of the universities. These things in general cripple the work in the field of the Social Sciences and particularly those which have developed a professional curriculum.

It should be understood, however, that criticism of the classical curriculum and criticism of the science curriculum, on the one hand, and praise of the Social Sciences, on the other, is not intended either to push the Social Sciences as superior to the others or to in any way condemn the other groups. This discussion has been carried forward with the thought of outlining largely the present status of each. The writer would strongly advocate that the universities offer equal opportunities for those interested in a classical curriculum; for those interested in a science curriculum; for those interested in a pure Social Science curriculum; for those interested in a professional Social Science curriculum; and for those interested in a liberal curriculum. This would necessitate permitting the pre-professional courses to be undertaken at least in a limited degree in the earliest part of the curriculum so that the most advanced scientific or professional courses might be completed in the upper classes within the uniform period required.

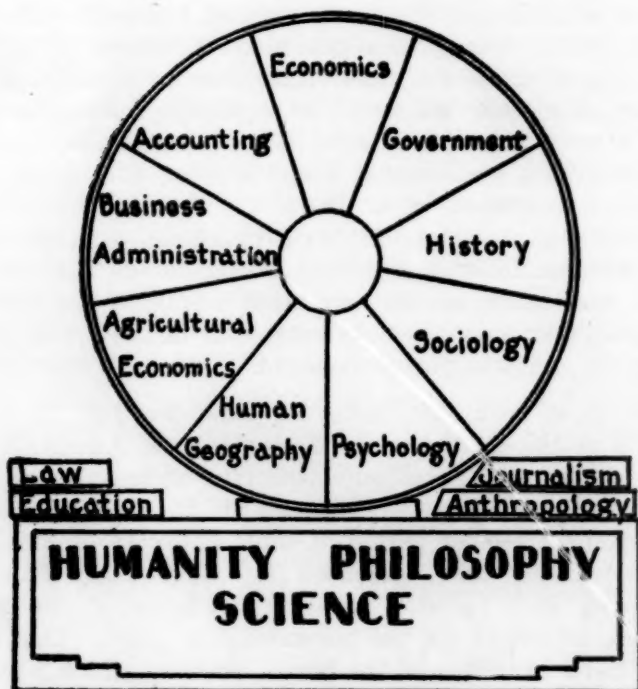
The most favorable factor in existence for the Social Sciences is the Southwestern Social Science Association. It is one of the most potentially powerful organizations in the world for promoting the interests of the Social Sciences. Already, in the brief period of nineteen years of existence, this Association has increased its membership from its organizing unit to nine separate branches of the Social Sciences, as shown on the accompanying chart. This chart shows those branches of the Social Sciences which have not yet organized a section in the Southwestern Social Science

Association. It is believed that each of them should be encouraged to do so because that would bring together in one powerful organization all of the Social Sciences.

The Southwestern Social Science Association is unique in that, so far as I know, it is the only organization of its kind in the field of the Social Sciences. It is an Association of which to be proud because it is organized on a reasonable, sound, and sensible basis. There is no attempt in this Association to realign any of the Social Sciences; there is no attempt to break up their functional association and development; there is no attempt to call one good and another bad; there is no attempt to discriminate against the one that has developed a professional curriculum or the one that has

## THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

As Represented by the Sectional Organizations  
of the Southwestern Social Science Association



remained a pure Social Science. But there is an active effort made to encourage each of them; each is allowed to have its own sectional organization with an officer in the general association; each is expected to develop its own program so as to meet the needs of its members, whether the subject matter is in the field of the pure Social Science or in the field of the applied Social Science; and all are expected to come together for the general meetings. It is recognized in this Association that all of the Social Sciences are tied together on the basis of their common interest in humanity and in the mutual desire of the Social Scientists to obtain a scientific and philosophical understanding of the factors affecting human social relationships, as well as a scientific and philosophical knowledge of the methods used to influence these factors so as to bring about the most wholesome results.

## THE QUALITY OF OUR THINKING\*

W. B. BIZZELL, President  
University of Oklahoma

Hebbel, the German poet, in a moment of despair once said: *Ich verstehe die Welt nicht mehr*. He was speaking of his own age, but his words apply with equal force to us today. We certainly do not understand the world in which we live. As paradoxical as it may seem at a time when we have extended our knowledge beyond any limits ever known before, we find ourselves in the predicament of not being able to apply it effectively in solving the problems of our complex civilization.

One of the effects of war and economic depression is to arouse men everywhere from a state of mental lethargy and to stimulate their thinking about the problems of life and destiny. Many of the greatest literary productions of history have followed disastrous wars. War has had the effect of stimulating the emotions of people, and out of these disasters have come some of the most important contributions of literary genius to the thought of the world. In a different way, economic depression has had the effect of challenging men to think about their economic and social problems. There is no question that in the United States the interest of the American people in their government and the policies formulated by their legislative bodies is more wide-spread today than ever before. During this decade there has been more sustained interest in the varied problems created by our general economic situation than ever before in our history. The significant thing is that we seem about as far from the solution of some of the most pressing problems affecting our destiny as we were in 1931. It is this paradoxical situation about which I should like for you to think with me for a little time.

One of our most thoughtful men asked the question some time ago in one of his books: "Why do we tarry, perhaps fatally, on the road, amidst unnecessary privations, misery, fears, suspicions and carnage?" I should like to ask you this question tonight: Why do we tarry? There may be those present this evening whose optimism causes you to feel that

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\*Address delivered at a meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association in Oklahoma City on Friday, April 15, 1938.

this is not a timely question, but I am inclined to think it is a question that is appropriate for us to raise in the light of another business recession that probably after all is only another phase of the disastrous years which followed the beginning of this decade. There can be no question that international good will and cooperation have steadily lost ground in recent years and thoughtful men everywhere freely admit that we are drifting toward another war of world proportions.

I repeat, then, why do we tarry? The late Professor James Harvey Robinson in his posthumous book entitled *The Human Comedy* said: "Our minds are not yet fitted to master and enjoy the machine age." As a result of the exhausting effects of the habits created by this age, we are victims of cultural lag. Under the dissipating influences that surround our lives, few of us ever grow up mentally. Professor Robinson would seem to have us believe that our mentality has not kept pace with the increasingly complex environment in which we find ourselves. In other words, our civilization has grown too complex. We are unable to see all aspects of a situation. We are like the astronomer looking at a distant star. We only see the side exposed to us. When we attempt to analyze some problem of interest and concern to us, we are unable to see all the elements in the problem and, as a result, our attempted solutions are partial and inadequate.

In order that I may not be too academic, I would remind you of our policies dealing with tariffs and international trade, money, social legislation, and similar questions that earnest men have been studying and passing laws about in recent years. While our reciprocal trade agreements have been designed to promote the free movement of our goods, we have destroyed our cotton markets and caused European countries to look to South America for their grain. While attempting to solve our money problem in terms of wider purchasing power, we have buried our gold in Kentucky and continued to buy silver from foreign countries at prices above the current bullion value. We have struggled desperately to "prime the pump" by placing people on relief with the hope of getting them back to normal employment; but at the moment, Congress is confronted with the problem of increasing greatly appropriations to help the unemployed at a time when the number of men and women out of work is approaching the peak of 1934.

I am not using these illustrations for the purpose of being critical of our Government, for I believe that our President and the leaders in Congress have made, and are making, a sincere effort to deal constructively with the pressing problems which confront them. My point is that our discernment does not seem to be adequate to deal effectively with many of the far-reaching conditions that are affecting our lives unfavorably at the present time.

That this is true is indicated by the fact that government is pleading with business to cooperate and business is contending that the encroachment of governmental policies upon private enterprise is making it impossible to cooperate. Men occupying high positions of state in Washington are declaring that fear is retarding recovery, and industrial leaders are answering by saying that uncertainty about governmental policies makes fear inevitable. In the midst of this stalemate, half truths, false analogies, superficial reasoning, and wistful thinking are being offered up from press and platform for the consumption of an eager and anxious public. While some partisanship, prejudice, and selfishness enter into this state of mind, most of those who attempt to enlighten the public are sincere and entirely honest. The fact is, much of our thinking is determined by a partial knowledge of facts and inability to draw valid conclusions from our working premises.

The tragedy in this situation is that we are constantly acting upon the conclusions we reach from our superficial thinking. The result is that we are continually being disappointed with our accomplishments. Fatalism—a sense of futility—and pessimism—a feeling of despair—follow from our failures to get results from our experiments and practices. I doubt that we realize the state of mind of millions of our people today. We have seen optimism slowly give way to skepticism and skepticism to despair. Men everywhere in increasing numbers are coming to believe that our situation is more or less hopeless and that we can do nothing about it. All men, for example, prefer to live in a world of peace and good will; but their governments are rushing them on toward the inevitability of war. Likewise there is almost a universal belief that our domestic civilization has grown so complicated that nothing much can be done about it.

It is not sufficient to say that the country is deficient in intellectual leadership. It may be that those of great intellectual capacity are not doing enough of hard, clear thinking about the problems of life and destiny; but it certainly will be a serious indictment of our institutions of higher learning if we take a fatalistic attitude and assume that our colleges and universities are not developing a sufficient number of leaders of high intellectual ability, thoroughly capable of guiding our destinies toward better things. I am optimistic enough to believe that the collective mentality of the American people is adequate to meet the exigencies of any crisis. It seems that in spite of the efforts that have been put forth we have not succeeded in mobilizing the intellectual resources of the nation in helpful ways. I am inclined to think that this task is fundamental as a basis for an attack upon the maladies and forces that are so sorely trying our souls.

Probably about the first thing we should do is to take account of the changing intellectual climate. It is rather trite to say that we are living in a very different world of ideas and ideals from that of the pre-war period. But I doubt that any of us realize how our thoughts have changed. We are talking today in common conversation about things that would have been of little interest and probably would have been hardly comprehensible a few years ago. Many new words have come into our language and some old words have changed their connotations in the light of recent events. The peril of every transitional period is the inability to understand each other because in the carry-over of ideas, we do not comprehend them alike.

"The tyranny of words," to use a phrase of Stuart Chase, is a reality. In the reorganization of our ideas, our thinking is confused by the effort to use old words in new senses. Some of the words that have a vague, sinister meaning to most of us are being used freely today; and I doubt that many of those who use them could define them in comprehensible terms to their associates. Fascism is a relatively new word. Communism is older. Totalitarianism is interrelated to both. I am certain I could start an argument here tonight that would be endless if we should begin a "panel" discussion (also a new word) devoted to the differences between Fascism and Nazism.

It has not been so long ago that we were discussing humanism as if it were a new concept in the world; and soon after that, technocracy became the dominating subject of general discussion. These words gripped our attention for a time, but slowly they lost their appeal and new words came to take their places. One of our serious difficulties is that we speak the same language but do not give the same meaning to the words we use. This is causing misunderstanding about many of the influences that are shaping our destiny.

Not only is there wide-spread misunderstanding among our people, but a spirit of intolerance toward the opinions of others is prevalent. War and economic adversity always produce this effect. The spirit of liberalism is always threatened under these circumstances. At the present time, there is a wide-spread belief that students and faculty members have become radical in their thinking. You will recall that two or three years ago there was a great amount of agitation throughout the country to require faculty members to take an oath of allegiance to our established institutions, and several states passed laws to this effect.

Recently, the legislature of a neighboring state undertook to pass a law providing for an investigation concerning communistic tendencies on the part of faculty members of its state university. The bill did not finally pass, but a compromise was effected by which the governing board of the institution was directed to survey the subversive influences on the campus of the institution. The effect of this suspicious attitude on the part of business men everywhere has caused great restriction to be placed upon the freedom of speech of faculty members. It is practically impossible today for professors in our institutions to write or speak on any subject relating to economics or politics without being under suspicion. There has not been a time since the early days of the World War when there has been so much peril to the intellectually honest faculty member as today. This is exceedingly unfortunate not only because it does violence to one of our most treasured traditions, but because it is interfering with the wisest possible utilization of the thoughts of competent men who are sincerely desirous of contributing to the body of popular opinion that might help us toward wiser solutions of many of our pressing problems. I think the situation calls for courage on the part of educational administrators as well as college professors

who want their institutions to serve the cause of Democracy in constructive ways.

We all know that Democracy does not function best in times of crises like war and economic depression. Our forefathers foresaw this and provided that the machinery of our government should move rather slowly in order that deliberation would cause it to work more effectively, but they recognized that there were times when prompt decisions would become necessary. For example, our Constitution provides that in time of war the President of the United States assumes the duties of Commander-in-Chief of our forces and as such, his powers are greatly increased. But no such provision is made to meet the exigencies of economic depression. The framers of our Constitution could not foresee that in the future economic crises would involve us in difficulties as great as those of war. It is for this reason that Democracy does not function effectively in such times as those through which we are passing. This causes many people to criticize any unusual powers that are assumed by the President or the chief executives of the states. This is true even when Congress confers upon the President unusual powers of any kind in order to expedite political procedures.

We had an excellent example of this last week when the Reorganization Bill was under consideration by Congress. Nationwide opposition developed to it because of the unusual powers that the bill concentrated in the hands of the Chief Executive. The bill, in general, was meritorious. One of the reforms that is most needed in our democratic government is the reorganization of the departments and bureaus in Washington. But the fact is that because of the increased powers conferred upon the President citizens everywhere lost sight of the merits of the proposal. Every one knows that there is mislocation, overlapping of functions, wasteful expenditure, and wide-spread inefficiency in the departments. One of the proposals contemplated the transfer of the Office of Education to a proposed new Department of Public Welfare; but surprisingly wide-spread opposition developed to this proposal, although every one knows that the Office of Education has always been the stepchild of the Department of the Interior and that a Department of Public Welfare is absolutely necessary to the efficient administration of many new activities that the Federal Government has undertaken.

I am not unmindful of the fact that the cry of executive domination was partly inspired by Congressmen who realized that this reorganization bill, if it became a law, would take a great amount of patronage away from them. But there were many sincere men throughout the country who opposed this bill solely upon the grounds that it increased the powers of the President. I admit that the bill was not perfect and that it probably needed amending in certain respects, but the failure of the general plan is nothing short of a tragedy and largely the result of prejudice and misunderstanding.

The underlying question that governments everywhere are trying to answer is this: How in the face of increasing centralization of power can economic justice for all men be secured without the sacrifice of personal initiative and political freedom? Another question is a natural corollary to this one; namely, what form of government can best accomplish this task? Certainly the answers that have been given to these questions by Fascism, Nazism, and Soviet Communism are far from satisfactory to democracies. Dictatorial regimentation is distasteful to us. It is well to understand that any form of regimentation that is made effective through centralization of power must place restrictions upon private initiative and civic liberty. "Progressive collectivism," to use a phrase of Walter Lippman in his new book *The Good Society*, that is adopted as a means of increasing economic security must by its very nature place restrictions upon some of the most cherished traditions of our people. We should frankly recognize this fact in connection with all the panaceas that we adopt in the interest of improving the economic status of industrial employees and middle class salaried men and women.

But whatever answers we give to the questions forced upon our attention by economic distress, we must see to it that civilization is not permitted to commit *hari-kari*. Political suicide may be an easy way out, but it is neither courageous nor sensible. "The supremely momentous problem," says Professor Joseph A. Leighton in his book entitled *Social Philosophies in Conflict*, "for all persons of enlightened goodwill to-day is the building into our culture of a genuinely democratic ethos. It is to purify and electrify the spiritual climate of civilization. This task is basically the function of education. It will not be done, either by those interested

primarily in personal profits, or in political power. Society will not be saved either by financial magnates or political go-getters. There is no other way of salvation than that of cleansing the springs of action and giving them a new direction under the guidance of the best equipped and most dynamic intelligences." This means that we must find a way to mobilize the best minds in a concerted effort to look at our political and economic problems in the light of our democratic traditions. We must refuse to be dictated to by pressure groups that are organized in our society to serve special interests and that, as a rule, are not motivated by an unselfish desire to save our civilization.

In finality, therefore, our problem becomes one of technique rather than one of policy. How can we utilize the vast intellectual resources of the nation in effective ways in times of crises? Our colleges and universities have been resourceful in developing techniques for investigation of all kinds of scientific problems which have resulted in extending greatly our knowledge of the physical universe. We have not been so resourceful in finding better ways to correlate our efforts in attacking the problems of our social order. This is the supreme task ahead of us.

I revert, then, to the thought of Hebbel with which I began. Let us frankly face the fact that we do not understand the world in which we live. The supreme task of every intelligent man is that of understanding the environment in which he lives and controlling and directing its forces for beneficial ends. While acknowledging our dilemma, I am not willing to accept fatalism as an answer to our predicament. With our faith firmly rooted in democratic tradition, let us move forward intelligently, courageously, and effectively toward a better understanding and a wiser direction of the forces and influences that determine our destiny.

## THE URBANIZATION OF THE SOUTH

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The population of the South during recent decades has increasingly shifted from farm to factory, from agrarian to industrial ways of living, from rural to urban communities.<sup>1</sup> In 1900, as may be seen from Table 1, 15.3 per cent of the inhabitants of the Southeast were urban—that is, resided in cities of 2,500 or more; in 1930, 29.8 per cent were urban. In 1900, 15.0 per cent of the inhabitants of the Southwest were urban; in 1930, 38.2 per cent were urban. While of the six regions, as the author has shown elsewhere, the Far West and the Southwest showed the largest relative gains in the urbanization of their populations from 1900 to 1910, the Southwest and the Southeast showed the largest relative gains from 1920 to 1930.<sup>2</sup>

But neither the Southeast nor the Southwest is as urbanized as the Northeast, the Middle States, the Far West, or the United States as a whole. While in 1900 the United States was 40.0 per cent urban, in 1930 it was 56.2 per cent urban. Whereas in 1900 the Middle States were 41.2 per cent, the Northeast 66.0 per cent, and the Far West 45.9 per cent urban, in 1930 these three regions were respectively 61.5 per cent, 74.7 per cent, and 67.2 per cent urban. The Southeast in 1930 was the least urban of any of the six major regions of the United

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<sup>1</sup>The South is composed of two of six major regions into which the United States has been divided by Odum in his *Southern Regions of the United States*. These two regions are the Southeast and the Southwest. The Southeast coincides approximately with the "Old South" and comprises eleven states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The Southwest "represents a new cultural region long differentiated from 'The South' and nearer West than South"; it consists of four states: Arizona, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas. The other four major regions of the United States are the Northeast, the Middle States, the Northwest, and the Far West. The Northeast is composed of the District of Columbia and the twelve states of Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, and West Virginia. The Middle States consist largely of what was long known as the Middle West and includes the eight states of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The Northwest represents the nine states of Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming. The Far West comprises the four states of California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

<sup>2</sup>Walter J. Matherly, "The Emergence of the Metropolitan Community". *Social Forces*, Vol. 14, No. 3, March, 1936, page 312.

States. While the Southwest in 1930 was more urban than either the Northwest or the Southeast, in 1900 it was the least urban of all the regions. As compared with the Northeast, the Middle States, the Far West, or the United States as a whole, however, both the Southeast and the Southwest in 1930,

TABLE 1

*Urban, Rural, and Total Population in the United States by Regions.*

REGION	Percentage urban of total population:		Percentage of increase in urban, rural and total population: 1900* to 1930†		
	1930*	1900†	Urban	Rural	Total
Southeast	29.8	15.3	175.9	17.1	41.3
Southwest	38.2	15.0	453.9	58.9	118.4
Far West	67.2	45.9	393.1	104.3	236.9
Northwest	35.6	24.8	131.4	38.4	61.5
Middle States	61.5	41.2	119.5	3.5**	47.1
Northeast	74.7	66.0	84.1	21.1	62.7
United States	56.2	40.0	123.9	19.1	61.5

\*United States Census: 1930. *Population*, Vol. I; Compiled from Table 9, p. 15.

†United States Census: 1910. *Population*, Vol. I; Compiled from Table 36, pp. 56-57.

\*\*Decrease.

even in spite of their rapid urban gains, were still predominantly rural in character.

The urban population of the Southwest during the past thirty years, as Table 1 further shows, has increased more rapidly than the urban population of the United States or of any of the other regions. The urban population of the Southeast has increased more rapidly than the urban population of the United States or of any of the other regions except the Southwest and the Far West. While the number of urban dwellers in the United States increased 123.9 per cent from 1900 to 1930, the number in the Southeast during the same period increased 175.9 per cent and in the Southwest 453.9 per cent. The Southwest ranked first in percentage of increase in urban inhabitants during the thirty-year period, the Far West second, and the Southeast third. The Northeast, which is the most highly urbanized region of the entire United States and which has probably "attained an equilibrium in the urban-rural ratios of its population", stood last and increased only 84.1 per cent.

The Middle States, as Table 1 also reveals, experienced a decrease of 3.5 per cent in rural population from 1900 to 1930. Of the five remaining regions, the Southeast showed the smallest percentage of increase in rural population, even a smaller percentage of increase than that of the United States. The Southwest, however, had a larger percentage of increase than any other region except the Far West. While the Southeast had a smaller percentage of increase in total population from 1900 to 1930 than any other region, both the Southeast and the Southwest are rapidly shifting—the latter shifting more rapidly than the former—from rural to urban modes of living. Neither region is nearing any such urban maturity as characterizes the Northeast or the Middle States, but both are moving speedily from rural to urban economies.

Study of the concentration of urban population in cities of varying size in the Southeast and Southwest as compared with other regions affords some interesting results. These results I have summarized elsewhere under three principal heads.<sup>3</sup> First, that the urban population of the Southeast as well as of the Southwest is less concentrated in places of 100,000 or more, and more concentrated in places of 2,500 to 10,000 than in any other regions except the Northwest or than in the United States as a whole; second, that the urban population of the Southeast as well as of the Southwest has shifted more rapidly during the past three decades to urban centers of 100,000 or more than in any other region except the Far West and the Northwest or than in the United States as a whole; and third, that both the Southeast and the Southwest have larger percentages of their total urban populations in cities of 10,000 to 100,000 than any other regions except the Northwest in one case and the Middle States in another.

Likewise, study of the concentration of total population in cities of varying size affords some interesting results.<sup>4</sup> Whereas only 3.3 per cent of the total population of the Southeast in 1900 and none whatever in the Southwest were in urban places of 100,000 or more, 10.1 per cent in the former and 15.2 per cent in the latter were in places of this size in 1930. But even in spite of these changes, the percentages of total population in neither the Southeast nor the Southwest in places of this size were anything like as great in

<sup>3</sup>Walter J. Matherly, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 314.

<sup>4</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 314-315.

either year as they were in the United States as a whole. The percentages of total population in places of lesser size conform in a general way to those of the United States as a whole.

Table 2 presents percentages of total population in urban places of specified size in the United States by regions in 1930. Here it will be observed that while 29.6 per cent of the total population of the United States was in cities of 100,000 or more, only 10.1 per cent of the total population of the Southeast and 15.2 per cent of the total population of the Southwest were in cities of this size. In the Far West 40.3 per cent of the total population, in the Middle States 34.2 per cent, and in the Northeast 43.0 per cent were concentrated in cities of this size. The Southeast and the Southwest have much smaller proportions of their total population in places of 25,000 to 100,000 than the United States or any of the other regions except the Northwest. But the percentages of total population in these two regions in places of 25,000 or less do not, with one exception, vary so very widely from the percentages of total population in places of similar size in the United States and in the other regions.

Neither the Southeast nor the Southwest has ever developed great metropolises like Chicago or New York. In 1930 there were thirteen cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants in the

TABLE 2

*Percentage of Total Population in Urban Places of Specified Size in the United States by Regions: 1930\**

REGION	Places of 100,000 or more	Places of 25,000 to 100,000	Places of 10,000 to 25,000	Places of 5,000 to 10,000	Places of 2,500 to 5,000	In all Places of 2,500 or more
Southeast	10.1	7.4	4.9	3.6	3.9	29.8
Southwest	15.2	6.9	5.3	6.0	4.8	38.2
Far West	40.3	10.3	7.6	5.3	3.8	67.2
Northwest	11.9	5.7	8.1	5.2	4.7	35.6
Middle States	34.2	11.8	6.7	4.9	4.0	61.5
Northeast	43.0	13.3	10.0	5.1	3.3	74.7
United States	29.6	10.5	7.4	4.8	3.8	56.2

\*United States Census: 1930, *Population*, Vol. I; Compiled from Table 9, p. 15, and from Table 10, pp. 16-17.

Southeast and seven in the Southwest.<sup>5</sup> The largest city in the Southeast was New Orleans, Louisiana, with a population of 458,762; the second largest was Louisville, Kentucky, with a population of 307,745; and the third largest was Atlanta, Georgia, with a population of 270,366. The city of first rank in the Southwest was Houston, Texas, with 292,352 people; and the city of second rank was Dallas, Texas, with 260,475. Five of the seven largest cities in the Southwest were in Texas. The other two were in Oklahoma. While Arkansas, Mississippi, South Carolina, and North Carolina in the Southeast have no cities of 100,000 or more, Tennessee has four; Florida, three; Virginia, two; and Louisiana, Kentucky, Georgia, and Alabama one each. The smallest city in the Southeast with 100,000 or more is Tampa, Florida, and the smallest in the Southwest is El Paso, Texas.

In 1900 there were only three cities in the Southeast with 100,000 inhabitants or more and none in the Southwest. The three cities in the Southeast were New Orleans, Louisville, and Memphis. Ten of the twenty cities in the Southeast and Southwest combined had less than 40,000 people each in 1900. Miami, Florida, in that year had only 1,681. Even in 1910 it had only 5,471. In 1900 Tulsa, Oklahoma, had only 1,390 people, and even in 1910 it had only 18,182 people. While the South has not developed huge metropolitan centers like Chicago or New York, the twenty cities of 100,000 or more which were within its borders in 1930 have all developed into the 100,000 class in the last thirty years with the exception of New Orleans, Louisville, and Memphis.

Prior to the Civil War many of these cities did not exist at all, or only existed as the merest villages. In 1860 New Orleans took first rank in the South with 168,675 people, Louisville second with 68,033, and Richmond third with 37,910.<sup>6</sup> Memphis in the same year had 22,623; Norfolk, 14,620; Houston, 4,845; Atlanta, 9,554; San Antonio, 8,235; Nashville, 16,988; and Jacksonville, 2,118. The following cities were either not in existence in 1860 or were apparently not of sufficient size, except in one or two cases, to warrant collection of separate population figures: Birmingham, Dallas, Oklahoma City, Fort Worth, Tulsa, Miami, Chattanooga, Knoxville,

<sup>5</sup>Figures used in this and the two succeeding paragraphs are obtained from United States Census: 1930, *Population*, Vol. I, pp. 18-20.

<sup>6</sup>United States Census: 1930, *Population*, Vol. I, pp. 18-21.

El Paso, and Tampa. In 1880 only New Orleans and Louisville had 100,000 or more inhabitants. Even in 1910 only New Orleans, Louisville, Atlanta, Birmingham, Memphis, Richmond, and Nashville had 100,000 or more.

While cities of 100,00 or more in the South have not yet become great metropolitan centers, they are rapidly moving in that direction. That this is the case is indicated by the growth of population in metropolitan districts—districts which extend beyond the limits of corporate communities of 2,500 or more. The metropolitan district as defined by the United States Bureau of the Census includes "in addition to the central city or cities, all adjacent and contiguous civil divisions having a density of 150 inhabitants or more per square mile, and also, as a rule, those civil divisions of less density that are directly contiguous to the central cities, or are entirely or nearly surrounded by minor civil divisions that have the required density."<sup>7</sup> By using this definition the Bureau of the Census has marked off and made a special study of ninety-six metropolitan districts in the United States, "each having an aggregate population of 100,000 or more and containing one or more central cities of 50,000 or more inhabitants."

TABLE 3

*Population, 1920 and 1930, Land Area and Density for Metropolitan Districts in the Six Major Regions and in the United States in 1930\**

AREA	1930		1920		1930	
	Number of Districts	Population	Number of Districts†	Population	Land Area in Square Miles	Population per square mile
United States	96	54,753,645	85	40,057,307	36,577.87	1,496.9
Southeast	16	3,708,182	10	1,862,813	4,615.97	803.3
Southwest	7	1,606,551	6	814,063	2,805.56	572.6
Far West	9	5,095,023	5	1,645,311	4,253.00	1,198.0
Northwest	4	908,237	4	747,498	1,103.89	822.8
Middle States	26	15,795,954	26	11,958,127	8,420.07	1,876.0
Northeast	34	27,639,698	34	23,029,495	15,379.38	1,797.2

\*United States Census, 1930: *Metropolitan Districts*; Compiled from Table 4, pp. 10-13.

†Includes only those districts of 1930 for which comparable population figures in 1920 are available.

<sup>7</sup>United States Census: 1930, *Metropolitan Districts*, pp. 5-6.

Table 3 shows the population of the ninety-six metropolitan districts in 1930 and of eighty-five districts in 1920, as well as the land area and the density for the ninety-six districts in 1930, in the six major regions of the United States. It will be observed from this table that of the number of metropolitan districts in the United States in 1930 there were sixteen in the Southeast, seven in the Southwest, nine in the Far West, four in the Northwest, twenty-six in the Middle States, and thirty-four in the Northeast. While four metropolitan districts in the Southeast and four in the Southwest for which comparable figures are available exhibited percentages of increase in population from 1920 to 1930 in excess of 40, only one in the Far West, one in the Northwest, three in the Middle States, and three in the Northeast exhibited percentages of increase in excess of this figure.<sup>8</sup> With the exception of El Paso, each of the metropolitan districts in the Southwest showed increases roughly from two to four times greater than the eighty-five districts in the United States. The percentage of increase in Tulsa was 75.5 and in Oklahoma City 100.6. The seven metropolitan districts of the United States having the highest percentage of increase from 1920 to 1930 were in order of rank: Miami, Los Angeles, Oklahoma City, Houston, San Diego, Tampa-St. Petersburg, and Tulsa.<sup>9</sup> Two of the seven are in the Southeast and three are in the Southwest.

Metropolitan population per square mile in the Southwest in 1930 was 572.6, the lowest of any region. The Southeast stood second, the Northwest third, and the Far West fourth. The Middle States and the Northeast had the largest population per square mile—larger than the average for the United States as a whole. Since the density of population depends on the land area, population per square mile, of course, varies widely among the various districts; it ranges all the way, in the Southeast, from 284.9 in Savannah, to 1,724.2 in New Orleans; in the Southwest, from 407.3 in El Paso to 1,112.1 in Oklahoma City; in the Far West, from 274.9 in Sacramento to 2,004.1 in Seattle; in the Northwest, from 409.1 in Salt Lake City to 1,336 in Omaha-Council Bluffs; in the Middle States, from 350.3 in Duluth to 3,899.6 in Chicago; and in the Northeast,

<sup>8</sup>Walter J. Matherly, *Op. Cit.*, p. 319.

<sup>9</sup>R. D. McKenzie, *The Metropolitan Community*, 1933, p. 322.

from 390.8 in Charleston, West Virginia, to 4,336.1 in New York-Northeastern New Jersey.<sup>10</sup>

Table 4 presents the percentages of increase between 1920 and 1930 in the total population of the United States and in the total population of eighty-five metropolitan districts arranged by regions. Comparable population figures in 1920 are not available for the other eleven districts which go to make up the total of ninety-six districts in 1930. While, as this table reveals, the increase in population in the eighty-five districts in the United States from 1920 to 1930 was 24.9

TABLE 4

*Percentage of Increase between 1920 and 1930 in the Total Population of the United States and in the Total Population of Eighty-five Metropolitan Districts arranged by Regions.\**

AREA	Total Population	METROPOLITAN POPULATION			
		In Metropolitan Districts	In central cities of the Metropolitan Districts	Outside central cities of the Metropolitan Districts	Outside all Metropolitan Districts
United States	16.1	24.9	19.4	39.2	2.1
Southeast	11.8	24.5	24.4	24.6	4.0
Southwest	22.9	55.7	62.2	25.7	1.5†
Far West	46.8	28.4	22.1	53.3	20.2†
Northwest	6.8	21.5	17.9	54.9	5.0
Middle States	14.5	32.1	24.3	64.0	2.6
Northeast	15.9	20.1	13.8	32.2	6.5

\*United States Census, 1930, *Metropolitan Districts*; Compiled from Table 4, pp. 10-13.

†Decrease.

per cent, the increase in total population of the United States was only 16.1 per cent. The population in central cities of the metropolitan districts in the United States increased much less rapidly than the population outside of those central cities, since the former increased only 19.4 per cent while the latter increased 39.2 per cent. The population of the eighty-five districts increased twelve times more rapidly than the population outside of all metropolitan districts, since the former increased 24.9 per cent and the latter only 2.1 per cent.

<sup>10</sup>Walter J. Matherly, *Op. Cit.* p. 319.

Of the eighty-five metropolitan districts for which comparable figures are available for 1920, ten are in the Southeast, six in the Southwest, five in the Far West, four in the Northwest, twenty-six in the Middle States and thirty-four in the Northeast. While the total population of the Southeast increased only 11.8 per cent from 1920 to 1930, the total population in its ten metropolitan districts increased 24.5 per cent. While this rate of increase is virtually the same as the national rate, it varies considerably from the rates of the other regions, particularly the rate of the Southwest. The population in central cities of the ten districts in the Southeast, however, increased 24.4 per cent. This represents a percentage of increase far greater than that in any other region except the Southwest. The population outside of all metropolitan districts in the Southeast increased at a much higher rate than that of the United States.

The total population of the Southwest increased 22.9 per cent from 1920 to 1930. This percentage of increase is greater than that of any other region except the Far West and appreciably greater than the national rate. The population of the six metropolitan districts in the Southwest increased 55.7 per cent. This is almost twice or more as great as the percentage of increase in any of the other regions or in the United States as a whole. The population of central cities in the six metropolitan districts in the Southwest increased 62.2 per cent, more than two and one-half times as great as the percentage of increase in the ten districts in the Southeast, from two and one-half to almost five times greater than any other region, and more than three times as great as the percentage of increase in the eighty-five districts in the United States. The population outside central cities increased 25.7 per cent. This percentage of increase was slightly more than that of the Southeast but considerably less than that of the other regions and that of the United States. The population outside of all metropolitan districts in the Southwest, however, decreased 1.5 per cent.

The urbanization of the South has taken place more rapidly in some states than in others. Table 5 presents the percentages of urban population in the Southeast and the Southwest by states. An examination of this table makes evident widely varying degrees of urbanization among the various states. Florida was the most urbanized state in the

TABLE 5

*Percentage of Urban Population in the Southeast and Southwest by States:  
1900, 1910, 1920, 1930*

Area	1930*	1920*	1910†	1900†
Southeast	29.4	23.8	19.5	15.3
Alabama	28.1	21.7	17.3	11.9
Arkansas	20.6	16.6	12.9	8.5
Florida	51.7	36.7	29.1	20.3
Georgia	30.8	25.1	20.6	15.6
Kentucky	30.6	26.2	24.3	21.8
Louisiana	39.7	34.9	30.0	26.5
Mississippi	16.9	13.4	11.5	7.7
North Carolina	25.5	19.2	14.4	9.9
South Carolina	21.3	17.5	14.8	12.8
Tennessee	34.3	26.1	20.2	16.2
Virginia	32.4	29.2	23.1	18.3
Southwest	38.1	30.2	22.5	15.0
Arizona	34.4	35.2	30.9	15.8
New Mexico	25.2	18.0	14.2	14.0
Oklahoma	34.3	26.6	19.3	7.4
Texas	41.0	32.4	24.1	17.1

\*United States Census, 1930, *Population*, Vol. I; Compiled from Table 9, p. 15.

†United States Census, 1910, *Abstract of the Thirteenth Census of the United States*; Compiled from Table 18, p. 56.

Southeast in 1930 and Texas was the most urbanized in the Southwest. The increases in urban population in the states of the Southwest have in general been greater than those in the states in the Southeast. This circumstance arises in spite of the fact that the number of inhabitants per square mile in the Southwest is very much smaller than in the Southeast. The population of the Southwest has tended to concentrate itself in cities to a higher degree than the population of the Southeast.

Of the six states in the United States—Nevada, Florida, Texas, Tennessee, Oklahoma, and New Mexico—exhibiting the most rapid gains in urbanization from 1920 to 1930, two are in the Southeast and three are in the Southwest. Each of these states except Tennessee increased in total population during the decade at a rate faster than that of the United States as a whole.<sup>11</sup> Likewise, each of them except Tennessee might be considered frontier states in the spread of settlement. But these states are unlike the frontier states in which the spread of earlier settlements occurred; they present more "nucleated

<sup>11</sup>R. D. McKenzie, *Op. Cit.*, p. 27.

TABLE 6

*Regional and Racial Distribution of Population, 1930\**

REGION	Total Population		Negro Population	
	Number	Per cent of total population	Number	Per cent of total population in each region
Southeast	25,550,898	20.9	7,778,475	30.4
Southwest	9,079,645	7.4	1,040,761	11.4
Far West	8,285,491	6.8	90,638	1.0
Northwest	7,384,497	6.0	97,229	1.3
Middle States	33,961,444	27.8	1,181,115	3.4
Northeast	38,026,202	31.1	1,570,859	4.1

\*Compiled from Odum, *Southern Regions of the United States*, p. 482

patterns" or areas of urban concentration than earlier frontiers. "Even today," says McKenzie, "the wheat states in the North, particularly the Dakotas, are much less urbanized than the newer regions of settlement in Oklahoma, western Texas, or any of the mountain states" or Florida.<sup>12</sup>

The racial characteristics of urban population in the South differ materially from those of urban population in other regions. Table 6 presents the regional and racial distribution of population in 1930. Of the total population in the United States 20.9 per cent were in the Southeast, 7.4 per cent in the Southwest, 6.8 per cent in the Far West, 6.0 per cent in the Northwest, 27.8 per cent in the Middle States and 31.1 per cent in the Northeast. Of the total population in each region, Negro population accounted for 30.4 per cent in the Southeast, for 11.4 per cent in the Southwest, for 1.0 per cent in the Far West, for 1.3 per cent in the Northwest, for 3.4 per cent in the Middle States, and for 4.1 per cent in the Northeast. Of the total population in the United States in 1930, 9.7 per cent were Negroes. Of the total Negro population 74.1 per cent resided in the southern regions.

Table 7 presents urban, rural-farm, and rural-nonfarm

<sup>12</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 27.

population in the various regions by color and nativity.<sup>13</sup> It will be observed from this table that only 29.8 per cent of the total native white population in the Southeast and 37.8 per cent in the Southwest were urban dwellers, whereas 66.9

TABLE 7

*Percentage of Urban, Rural-farm, and Rural-Nonfarm Population by Color and Nativity in the United States, Arranged by Regions: 1930\**

REGIONS	All Classes	Native White	White Foreign-Born	Negro	Other Races
Southeast	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	29.8	29.8	72.1	28.7	12.6
Rural-farm	47.7	46.0	10.8	52.2	69.7
Rural-Nonfarm	22.5	24.1	17.1	19.1	17.7
Southwest	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	38.2	37.8	52.5	38.9	37.9
Rural-farm	39.9	39.5	28.3	47.2	36.7
Rural-Nonfarm	21.9	22.7	19.2	13.9	25.4
Far West	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	67.2	66.9	71.3	86.7	60.1
Rural-farm	13.5	13.3	13.0	4.2	17.6
Rural-Nonfarm	19.3	19.8	15.7	9.1	22.3
Northwest	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	35.6	35.1	36.0	81.0	25.2
Rural-farm	39.6	40.3	37.8	5.6	39.2
Rural-Nonfarm	24.8	24.6	26.2	13.4	35.6
Middle States	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	61.5	58.1	78.2	88.3	67.3
Rural-farm	21.8	24.1	11.2	4.1	8.2
Rural-Nonfarm	16.7	17.8	10.6	7.6	24.5
Northeast	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
Urban	74.7	71.3	87.3	79.8	79.7
Rural-farm	7.5	9.0	2.7	3.9	5.1
Rural-Nonfarm	17.7	19.7	10.0	16.3	15.1
United States	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	56.2	54.6	80.3	43.7	45.8
Rural-farm	24.5	24.9	8.1	39.4	29.3
Rural-Nonfarm	19.3	20.5	11.6	16.9	24.9

\*United States Census, 1930, *Abstract of the Fifteenth Census of the United States*; Compiled from Table 39, pp. 94-96.

<sup>13</sup>The Bureau of the Census explains the difference between rural-farm and rural-nonfarm population as follows: "The rural-farm population includes more than 99 per cent of the total farm population. The rural-nonfarm (or "village") population includes small manufacturing villages and trading centers, unincorporated suburban areas, mining settlements, etc., and a considerable number of families living in the open country but not on farms." United States Census, 1930, *Abstract of Fifteenth Census of the United States*, p. 5.

per cent of the total in the Far West, 58.1 per cent in the Middle States, and 71.3 per cent in the Northeast were urban dwellers. Even in the United States as a whole 54.6 per cent of the total native whites lived in urban areas. The Northwest only showed a percentage of urban native whites similar to the Southeast and the Southwest. Approximately 70 per cent of native whites in the Southeast and 60 per cent in the Southwest resided either on the soil or in close proximity to the soil.

Neither the Southeast nor the Southwest has many foreign-born whites. Of the total in the Southeast in 1930, 72.1 per cent were urban, and of the total in the Southwest, 52.5 per cent were urban. Foreign-born whites in these regions are concentrated in cities just as they are concentrated in cities in all of the other regions except the Northwest, but they are not concentrated to quite so high a degree. Save perhaps in cities like Tampa, New Orleans, and El Paso, cities in the South have never had large foreign elements in their population; neither have they encountered the problems incident to foreign quarters or colonies.

The most striking difference between the urban population of the South and that of other regions is the Negro. Whereas from 80 to 88 per cent of the Negroes in the other regions reside in cities, only 28.7 per cent in the Southeast and 38.9 per cent in the Southwest live in cities. In the southern regions the bulk of the Negro population resides in rural areas.

While the cities of the South have attracted Negroes in considerable numbers, the largest Negro cities in the United States are not in the South; they are in other regions.<sup>14</sup> New York has 224,670; Philadelphia has 219,599; and Cook County, Illinois, including Chicago, has 246,992. In the diffusion of Negro population, which took place from 1920 to 1930, "a number of northern communities showed an increase in Negro population of several hundred per cent." These increases were concentrated almost altogether in urban centers.

The South in recent decades, then, has experienced a rapid growth in urban population. While neither the Southeast nor the Southwest is as urbanized as the Northeast, the Middle States, or the United States as a whole, urban population in each region has increased more rapidly during the last thirty years than in any of the other regions except the Far West.

<sup>14</sup>Odom, *Southern Regions of the United States*, p. 477.

Unlike other regions, except the Northwest, the Southeast and the Southwest have their urban populations concentrated in places of medium or small rather than of large size. While two of the seven metropolitan districts showing the greatest percentage of increase in population from 1920 to 1930 were in the Southeast and three were in the Southwest, neither of the regions has developed great centers of population like Chicago or New York. Of the states in the Southeast, Florida is most urbanized and of the states in the Southwest, Texas is most urbanized. While the cities of both the Southeast and of the Southwest have attracted Negroes in large numbers, Negro population in the South is still largely either rural-farm or rural-nonfarm as to residence.

## THE TREND OF BIG BUSINESS

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Any discussion of the trend of big business in the year 1938—especially in the United States—must necessarily be concerned chiefly with the relation of big business to government. Broadly speaking, the issue before the country can be stated in terms of such relationship. The *New Deal* is an attempt, a rather confused attempt, it is true, to define this relationship and act on the definition. The trend of business under such *rapport* as may be established is the chief economic concern of the nation.

The nature of this relationship is commonly misconceived. The conventional economics textbooks currently in use in colleges and universities state that there are three possible lines of policy which government may adopt towards big business, i. e., towards monopoly business:<sup>1</sup> *laissez-faire*, trust-busting, and regulation.<sup>2</sup> A policy of *laissez-faire*, they say, is out of the question. The intolerable conditions among the working classes, as well as the intolerable scandals and failures in big business itself, which develop under such a government policy in the course of the nineteenth century, preclude the continuance of such a policy. No publicist of any repute whatsoever can be found today, it is said, who would

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<sup>1</sup>The objection may be made that *big business* does not necessarily mean *monopoly business*. The statement is often made that mere size does not of itself prove the existence of monopoly; the Supreme Court of the United States took this position in 1920, in *United States v. United States Steel Corporation*, 251 U. S. 417. But the Court is inclined to use monopoly as a pejorative term. What the Court was trying to say was that the United States Steel Corporation was not a *bad* monopoly. Of course *big* and *monopoly* are both relative terms. Big business, as the term is generally understood, does constitute monopoly, in the sense of absence of competition, i. e., of atomistic competition, the kind of competition assumed in classical price theory. To have monopoly conditions it is not necessary that we have perfect monopoly; the terms quasi-monopoly, imperfect competition, and administrative competition are variously used to describe such monopoly conditions as prevail throughout industry in the United States, in varying degrees. The important point is that big business does constitute something very different from the competitive conditions of the classical economists, a foundation stone of the whole philosophy of capitalism and *laissez-faire*.

<sup>2</sup>Government ownership and operation, as a general policy, is ruled out at constituting an abandonment of the system of free private enterprise.

advocate the *laissez-faire* of the early classical economists. The alternative policy of trust-busting, while not wholly to be condemned, is pictured as too costly and as against the trend of the times. In cases where economies of large-scale production are not involved, dissolution is perhaps the proper solution, but the most powerful trusts do not develop under such conditions. Where such economies are involved there is no reason, it is pointed out, why we should give them up altogether; why not rather enjoy them and see that their benefits are passed on to the consumer in lowered price. Moreover, some grants of monopoly are necessary to encourage invention, discovery, and other creative work of social benefit, while others are necessary because of the very nature of the business involved. This line of reasoning brings us to the third, and perhaps ideal, policy, regulation in the public interest; the remainder of such discourses is taken up with a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages, the points of strength and of weakness, of the various techniques of regulation.

One implication of such an analysis is that *laissez-faire*, trust-busting, and regulation represent three different, distinct, lines of policy; that there is a different social and economic philosophy behind each of them. Perhaps they do represent three lines of policy, in a sense, but their similarity is more striking than their differences, and the economic philosophy behind each of them is the same. The *laissez-faire* of Francois Quesnay and Adam Smith was a protest against monopoly and regulation, and the protest was directed against these two "evils" because they interfered with "the obvious and simple system of natural liberty," i. e., the system of free competition. In Adam Smith's day monopolies were government granted monopolies; "hands-off" on the part of government meant an absence of monopolies and the prevalence of competition. Today we have the apparently anomalous spectacle of government being called upon, not to keep hands off so that we may have competition, but to interfere in the interest of enforcing competition. But there is nothing curious about such a change of front; in fact, there has been no change of front. The object of government interference today and the object of the government *laissez-faire* of Adam Smith are the same, the establishment of free competition. What has changed is not the policy, but the circumstances under

which the policy is applied; today monopolies arise and flourish not only without government grant, but in spite of government.<sup>3</sup> To speak of "abandoning" a policy of *laissez-faire* gives a false impression. *Laissez-faire* was never advocated for its own sake, as an end to itself, but as a means, the means to free competition. To continue in a policy of *laissez-faire* today would be to abandon the *laissez-faire* of Adam Smith, not to continue it.

The object of trust-busting is the same as that of *laissez-faire*, the establishment, or the reestablishment, of competitive conditions. The economic philosophy motivating them is the same, the belief in the efficacy of competition, which, in turn, is not an end in itself, but a means, the means to the end of social welfare, "the greatest good to the greatest number." Where trust-busting seems impossible or undesirable for various reasons, regulation attempts to accomplish the same result in a slightly different manner, the objective of regulation being to maintain such prices as would obtain under competitive conditions, to allow a "fair return" on "fair value." The prevailing, orthodox theory is still the theory of Adam Smith. Belief in the beneficence of free private enterprise, free competition, rugged individualism—call it what you will; the guiding hand of the Father is still upon us.

But what can be said as to the success of trust-busting and regulation, those complementary twin policies which have attempted to take over the function of *laissez-faire*? Briefly, they have both failed. Certainly no economist can be found who would maintain that either has been generally successful; certainly they have failed to "reestablish" competitive conditions. Explanations of their failure are varied and confused because economists have quite generally overlooked the fact that the reason for the prevalence of large-scale, monopoly enterprise today is the same as the reason for the prevalence of small-scale, competitive enterprise yesterday—the state of the industrial arts. Discussions of the modern economic order in terms of automatic equilibrium under competitive conditions are beside the point; attempts to enforce or to restore competitive conditions are as fruitless as attempts to restore handicraft industry. The social and economic

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<sup>3</sup>That is, without overt government grant of monopoly, and in spite of overt government opposition to monopoly.

effects of technological change do not wait upon recognition or explanation. We face conditions of monopoly, not competition; the solution of whatever difficulties we may encounter does not lie along the impossible path of return to competition. The problem of the relation of business to government is the problem of the relation of big business to government, not atomistically competitive business. The attempt to state or to solve the problem of economic order in terms of the competitive situation assumed by the classical economists constitutes a cultural anachronism.

A second assumption implicit in such a discussion of the relationship of government to business as that outlined above is that government can *adopt* a policy towards big business. Such an assumption misconceives the true nature of government. Government is not a third party, something apart and aloof from and independent of the social order in which it exists. Government in a community dominated by business enterprise is necessarily a business government. One might as well imagine the restoration of Indian tribal government in the United States as to imagine that our government, even under the New Deal, is anti-business, or anti-big business. The acrimonious disputes that seem to split the country are only disputes as to what policies are best calculated to restore and augment business profits, not disputes as to the desirability of abandoning a system of business enterprise. A nation of Christians cannot be expected to set up Buddhism as the state religion. A consideration of the trend of big business, therefore, involves a consideration of the trend of big business *and* big business government, not a consideration of the trend of big business as opposed to, or apart from, or independent of, the trend of government.

What, then, is the trend of big business and big business government? The answer to this question is to be found in certain characteristics of a profit economy, certain characteristics which have been strangely neglected by most economists.

The most unfortunate characteristic of the profit economy, or the capitalist system, is its inordinate and incessant progressiveness in a quantitative sense. Capitalism cannot stand still; it must either advance or retrogress, and retrogression is ruinous. Continuous expansion is essential to its continued functioning. A resulting feverish restlessness and

ant like activity, which is not without its effects upon the personal characteristics of the people living under it, is perhaps the most striking characteristic of the capitalist system. The motive force is the search for profits;<sup>4</sup> the drive is capital seeking investment; the cause is the peculiar distribution of income. Adequate and continuous profits, "a normal rate of return," i. e., a rate of return which the community as a whole, as well as business men, feel is adequate, "fair," or "normal," is a prerequisite to the functioning of business enterprise. And the method of distribution of income peculiar to the system, which gives great incomes to few persons, coupled with the religious like fervor of the cult of saving, insures that the amount of capital seeking a "fair" return is ever increasing under "normal" conditions. Business prosperity means "normal," or more than "normal," returns; returns mean more investment, more investment upon which "fair" returns must be earned. In short, good business inevitably means more business; the trend of big business is towards more big business. Can this dizzy and cumulative pace be kept up? Classical economics contends that it can; experience demonstrates that it cannot, not, at least, with the system of distribution of income which accompanies it. The effort of business enterprise to maintain "normal" returns on ever increasing funds of capital gives tone to government and determines the course of international relations.

What is commonly called economic imperialism is largely a manifestation of this effort. Capital that could not find a market at home went abroad. Emigration of capital became the traditional policy for relief of a congested domestic capital market. Attempts to invest capital, to sell goods, and to obtain raw materials in industrially backward countries brought enterprisers into conflict with "backward" governments. They appealed to their home governments for "protection" against the peoples whom they were attempting to exploit. Battleships followed merchant ships; the flag followed trade. The white man took up his burden.

But difficulties developed. Too many flags followed trade.

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<sup>4</sup>The term *profits* is used here in the ordinary sense of *return on investment*. The line between interest and profits is peculiarly vague, even in definition.

The flags of numerous industrial nations appeared in the same places. The gaining of trade rights, concessions, open ports, spheres of influence, colonial empires, became the chief objective of foreign policy. Western Europe was the seat of industrial development, but not all European countries attained their industrial majority at the same time or at the same pace. Those late in the race found the choice places taken; those early in the race saw their former European customers become their bitter rivals, demanding their "place in the sun." Conflicts between home governments inevitably developed; national governments were being used as instruments of international competition. Moreover, not all non-European industrially backward nations remained industrially backward; some of them learned their lesson only too well. They refused from the first to allow themselves to be adapted to the role of colonial empires or tributary states. From good customers for both consumer and capital goods they became not only poor customers, supplying their own markets, but strenuous competitors in other markets. The United States and Japan are classic examples.

Westward the course of empire—until there is no more west. It is no accident that our first foreign war and recognition as a world power followed close on the heels of the closing of the frontier. But the frontier of capitalism is also closed; emigration of capital is no longer a solution to the dilemma. We are entering upon a new, more bitter and intense, phase of national rivalry and national conflict. Industrial nations must expand, and relatively speaking there is no more room for expansion. Capital seeking investment clashes with other capital seeking investment, and national governments back their nationals' capital.

National backing takes the peculiarly desirable form—peculiarly desirable from the standpoint of business enterprise—of rumors of war and war. Both seem to offer a way out of the dilemma, and both do offer a way out for the time being. Governments are good customers, and military establishments are costly. Armaments have a high rate of obsolescence and the market is not easily saturated. A large war department appropriation bill offers great opportunities to business enterprise. Government bonds offer an investment opportunity for capital funds. True, the bonds must be paid—at least until recently we had always thought so—

but not altogether by business enterprise, and it is a strain on credulity to imagine a steel corporation refusing a contract for building a battleship for fear of future taxation. Preparation for war has the further advantage of being a never ending affair. Increase in size of military establishment by one nation necessitates increases by all other nations if they are to maintain their relative positions or better them. Since superiority, not absolute size, is the prerequisite to domination, each increase of a rival must be met by still greater increases, which, in turn, are met by even greater increases, and so on without end. Eventual clashes are not an unmixed blessing. Production is accelerated, but some business is seriously hampered or entirely destroyed; wars destroy wealth and offer some opportunities in the way of rebuilding, but not in sufficiently large amounts, and certainly a modern war is no creator of rich markets.

The fact that captains of industry rarely foment war directly and deliberately, after the manner of munitions manufacturers in current cinema presentations, is no answer to the trend of big business in the direction indicated. Business men do not want war; they would doubtless prefer to make profits without it. The exigencies of business do not directly demand war, or even preparation for war. Big business merely demands furtherance and protection of its interests at home and abroad, and furtherance and protection of such interests by national governments lead to war. 'The language of business interests is foreign to the terminology of war and diplomacy, polite intercourse between foreign offices, and the statement of national aims. Preparedness for war is preparedness for national defense; wars are fought to repel invasion or threatened invasion, to protect lives and property of citizens, to rescue oppressed peoples, to maintain the rights of racially kindred minorities, to guarantee the territorial integrity of allies, to avenge insults to national honor, to make the world safe for democracy, to fulfill treaty obligation—when it is found convenient with other aims to do so—etc. Capital seeking investment is known under a variety of appellations.

Such a trend as has been described is in the direction of cumulatively accelerating financial bankruptcy and industrial exhaustion of what has been called modern industrial society, ending only in the liquidation of the system of free private

enterprise. It is difficult to envisage any other outcome. The remedies that have been applied, and are being applied, no doubt with honesty of purpose, sincerity of hope, and vigor of execution, have proved pitifully inadequate palliatives. Treaties of amity and friendship, reciprocal trade agreements, arms limitation conferences, leagues for the preservation of world peace, arbitration agreements, outlawry of war and other such expressions of moral indignation, allocation of colonial empires and spheres of influence, neutrality laws—all these have proved so many “scraps of paper” in face of the powerful drive of capital seeking investment.

All of this is quite commonplace;<sup>5</sup> even the front pages of current daily newspapers are full of it. The remedies that have been tried have failed because they have not been put in the form of a business proposition. Only by the provision of an exhaustless capital market or by the curbing of capital accumulation can any solution of the difficulty be attained.

The problem of capitalist civilization is the problem of the market; the problem of the market is the problem of the distribution of income. The problem is a world problem, not merely a series of national difficulties; the solution offered by recourse to foreign markets no longer presents itself. The classical theory of economic progress, built around the process of capital accumulation through saving, with demand and markets assumed and general overproduction deemed impossible, has no longer even the semblance of empirical validity formerly afforded by the expanding market of the nineteenth century. What business needs is not capital, but customers. This problem of supplying consumers must be solved; there is no alternative for capitalism. The alternative is war engendered financial bankruptcy and industrial exhaustion, ending only in the liquidation of capitalist civilization. The present trend of big business lies in the direction of this alternative.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>It is needless to point out that none of the ideas expressed herein are original. They are drawn from Malthus, Hobson, Veblen, and others, and particularly from the chapter on “Business in Law and Politics” in Veblen’s *Theory of Business Enterprise*.

<sup>6</sup>Cf. Ayres, C. E., *The Problem of Economic Order*, New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1938, p. 88.

## FUNCTIONS OF A UNIVERSITY BUREAU OF BUSINESS RESEARCH

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Bureaus of business research are maintained at thirty universities. All of these bureaus have been established since 1921, with the exception of the one at Harvard which was established in 1911. Growth in the number of bureaus was most rapid during the five years 1924-1929. However, ten have come into existence since 1930 and two were established in 1936, which fact indicates that the movement to establish bureaus is still pronounced. With a few possible exceptions, bureaus are a division of the college of business administration or the college of commerce.

About half of the bureaus (sixteen to be exact) employ at least one full time staff member, who commonly holds the title of director. Nine of the sixteen employ two or more full time staff members, while four have a staff of from six to eleven full time men.

Fourteen out of thirty organizations do not employ the full time of one person, but instead, the work is directed by a faculty member who devotes only part of his time to teaching. Other faculty members who teach full time assist in the bureau's work or act in an advisory capacity.

Practically all bureaus depend upon the assistance of the teaching faculty in carrying out studies, and practically all utilize part time services of assistants. A few have full time assistants.

The foregoing summary of the organization indicates that many bureaus have a very limited personnel and that it is common to find a lack of complete specialization in research work. Many bureaus tend to be operated as a part time enterprise by one or a few faculty members. The exceptions to this general rule are found in a few bureaus such as the ones at Texas, Pittsburgh, Harvard, and Illinois, where the staff is larger and the personnel is specialized in research alone, with little or no teaching.

The general purpose of bureaus of business research is to make scientific studies of economic and business problems commonly within the boundaries of the state. There are, of course, some modifications to this purpose in particular

instances; for example, some bureaus do not confine themselves to state problems, but carry on investigations of national scope. Also a few bureaus largely confine themselves to a territory smaller than a state. For example, the Bureau of Business Research of the University of Pittsburgh devotes itself mainly to business and economic conditions in the immediate area of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. A review of the character of research conducted by some bureaus indicates that the general purpose of a bureau also is modified often in that most research pertains to problems peculiar to business organizations as contrasted with general economic conditions or problems.

The types of research conducted in carrying out the general purpose of the bureaus may be classified as follows: (1) investigations, initiated by the bureau, of special business problems; (2) studies initiated by the bureau on the subject of general economic problems or conditions; (3) services as an auxiliary to faculty members who initiate and conduct research; (4) services as an auxiliary to business concerns and trade groups in meeting business problems; (5) publication of monthly periodicals reviewing current business and economic conditions; (6) gathering of general statistics.

Agricultural experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture are famous for their studies of agricultural problems. Farmers' bulletins and many other publications of the experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture have long been widely recognized as a great aid to farmers, to marketers, and to many others. The idea has been common that there is a need for similar functions to be performed for the benefit of commerce and industry, and this idea has probably been the principal cause for setting up bureaus of business research.

But the bureaus have not developed to meet the needs of business as the institutions engaged in agricultural research have found a place of usefulness in their particular field. An explanation of this difference in degree of usefulness between institutions for business and agricultural research is found in the difference of the clientele which is served. A farmer's work is on a small scale and the success of his work depends upon many scientific conditions of which he is ignorant. For instance, the farmer usually knows nothing of chemistry, yet the chemistry of the soil is of vital importance to his livelihood.

He knows nothing of entomology, yet the control of insect pests is one of his major problems. He is so engaged in farm operations that he cannot possibly be informed even to an elementary extent in the sciences which will determine the best farm practices. Consequently, he must go to a staff of scientists who are prepared to experiment and tell him the best practices to follow. These natural scientists can give specific directions applicable to one farm which the farmer may carry out in complete detail.

On the other hand, a great part of commerce and manufacturing is carried out on a large scale by highly competent specialists who are able to work out for themselves the best policies in conducting their business. It is, therefore, frequently the case that those who are studying business problems from a scientific point of view go to the business man to find the answer to their questions, rather than for the business man to go to the economist or expert in business administration. Furthermore, conclusions reached by a bureau, as is commonly the case in the field of social sciences, lack the specific applicability that is characteristic of investigations involving the natural sciences. This explanation accounts in part for the fact that bureaus do not occupy the position in our business and economic organization that is occupied by agricultural investigating organizations in their field.

While the function of bureaus is not yet well recognized as is the function of agricultural experiment stations—at least the work of bureaus has not been popularized to the same extent as the published results of agricultural research—it must be remembered that bureaus are still in their infancy. Approximately half of the bureaus were established less than ten years ago. Time is required for any organization to learn the best method of performing its work, and time is required for business men to learn the utilization of a bureau.

In addition, bureaus have had the most meager financial support. They have never received aid from the federal government, although the federal government has been generous in financing agricultural research. Nearly all bureaus are handicapped by a limited and part time personnel, and many contend with wholly inadequate funds for stenographic, clerical, and publication expenses.

As to the second type of work undertaken by bureaus of business research, that of initiating and carrying out studies

of a general economic nature, the bureaus have encountered a problem to which they are adjusting themselves. Research in general economic problems, for instance, studies regarding incomes and the business cycle are best carried on by economists who make their study a life work. Such research is not suited for routine and complete assignment to research organizations, except where the research organization is specifically designed for the problem. Most bureaus of business research are not specifically organized for the study of one problem, but instead are designed for the study of many subjects. Consequently, outstanding work in the development of economic theory and in the interpretation of facts regarding our economic system has generally resulted from the work of individuals and not from the work of organizations. An important exception to this general rule is found in the work of the Brookings Institution and the National Industrial Conference Board. These organizations are not maintained by universities, yet they are a kind of research organization functionally similar to university bureaus. Their studies are widely recognized. They are designed and their personnel selected with reference to certain problems.

As an auxiliary to faculty members and to business concerns and trade groups, the bureau often performs valuable service. An organized bureau is especially useful in gathering and preparing factual material for interpretation by faculty members. This system makes for an excellent division of labor in research. An organization is well suited for gathering material and to some extent in the interpretation of facts. But the genius of the study is one who is prepared to a high degree of specialization. This quality is best supplied by the teaching faculty because of the teachers' good judgment as to the need of certain research and the best plan for its direction.

Bureaus have had difficulty in rendering assistance as an auxiliary to trade groups or business concerns, because trade organizations are better prepared to render such services. The trade association is especially organized and staffed to meet the needs of the trade. A bureau could not be expected to offer the same service as a trade organization because it is not closely associated with particular trades. In addition, a question of policy arises when a bureau serves a trade group. This question is: does the bureau take the public view or does

it serve special interests? Unquestionably the public interest should dominate the work of a division of a university, especially a state university.

There are thirteen monthly reviews of current business and economic conditions published by as many bureaus. These business reviews are quite valuable in presenting current trends in a state or other region smaller than a Federal Reserve district. With few exceptions these periodical publications do not review business conditions in the nation or in a territory larger than a state, because there are several magazines and newspapers that are long established and that have been performing this function economically on a commercial basis. In addition, the Federal Reserve banks publish monthly summaries which cover business conditions in their respective districts. However, the monthly reviews of business conditions published by bureaus are of the highest quality, considering the limit in the geographical territory covered.

The Bureau of the Census and other governmental divisions gather economic and business statistics much more comprehensively, uniformly, and at a lower cost than could be done by any other agency. It is therefore well that the gathering of statistics on manufacturing, agriculture, trade, and other subjects be delegated to the federal government and not undertaken by decentralized authority.

This presentation so far has given special attention to problems of university bureaus in filling their role as research organizations. But it is of greater significance to point out how well they have succeeded and their future possibilities. That we need explanation and interpretation of economic forces governing our society is beyond question. We are far from understanding the workings of financial organization, the cause of the business cycle, and the best policy of regulation, to mention types of vital problems. Bureaus, therefore, have an unlimited general field of activity. But, in addition, their usefulness has been proved in specific kinds of activity.

Bureaus are especially well suited for the study of regional economic conditions. Each state has peculiar problems of public finance, including taxes, borrowing, homestead exemptions; unemployment compensation; agricultural income; industrial organization; and commodity marketing, to cite illustrations. Investigations of such regional conditions is best made by a state organization or by men well acquainted

from close association with local conditions. Bureaus should assume an increasingly important position in this type of work, especially because of the thorough, unbiased, and objective character of their studies. A review of their published studies reveals that a principal part of their activity has been directed to regional problems of a general economic character, and this fact further indicates their special advantage in this field.

Joint research with faculty members is also a kind of work for which bureaus are admirably suited and in which they encounter no material limitation. As an auxiliary they take the burden of assembling and presenting facts and attending to publication of findings made by specialized faculty members. This service encourages research by the faculty as the detailed work prohibitive to an individual is handled by an organization. Further, a division of labor between the faculty and the bureau obtains all the benefits of individual initiative in planning research on economic and business problems confronting society and of organization in the execution of the research.

Publication of monthly reviews of business conditions is of outstanding usefulness to the state. A service is rendered in this case that is available from no other source. The interest of business men in monthly reviews because of their completeness and especially because of their impartiality and accuracy attests the value of this kind of work.

Opportunity also exists, despite difficulty to which reference has been made, in the field of studying business practices and problems, and as an auxiliary to business men in dealing with their trade problems. Usefulness in this type of work is readily demonstrated by reference to the studies of department store operations by the Harvard Bureau of Business Research. Individual business concerns and industries or lines of trade stand to gain materially from the constructive suggestions and appraisals of a bureau. In addition, the faculty that teaches the youth of the state principles of economics and business administration stands to gain from contact with the business world.

Many types of business institutions have been elevated to great prominence in our economic life, although their beginning was modest. It is reasonable to believe that university bureaus of business research will pass through a similar evolutionary process, and as their usefulness to society is more

widely recognized they will grow to occupy an outstanding position in the economic life of the nation. Experience of the past fifteen years has already firmly established their permanent value in certain fields, and their beginnings in other fields promise substantial results.

## A FACTUAL SUMMARY OF STATE ADMINISTRATIVE REORGANIZATION

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Up to the present the movement for the reorganization of state administration has resulted in the reorganization of some twenty states. This movement has commanded widespread attention and interest. Various conflicting claims have been made regarding its accomplishments. It is not the purpose of this paper to praise or condemn the movement, but to present a summary of what has been done in the first fifteen states to be reorganized. The basic principle of reorganization in these states is to centralize administrative control in the governor by consolidating many agencies into a few large functional departments, each headed by an individual appointed by the governor. The result desired from such reorganization is efficiency and economy. The chief question raised in this paper is: To what extent did the reorganization movement actually reorganize the states? The answer to this question must be kept in mind in any calculation of efficiency and economy resulting from the plan. For the purposes of this paper, the facts regarding the status of reorganization have been classified under six categories.

(1) The first category concerns the consolidation of agencies by abolishment and assignment of their functions to new code departments. It is evident from Table I that the reduction of the number of agencies by such consolidation is not as great as has been claimed. Governor Davis of Ohio, for example, claimed that by his consolidation "eight business departments" replaced "a chaotic maze of scores of helter-skelter" agencies.

In fact, the actual reduction of agencies range from thirty-seven in Illinois to three in Maryland. The number of reorganized departments range from two in South Dakota to twenty-one in Pennsylvania. The average number of code departments for the fifteen states is eleven. The average number of agencies reduced by consolidation is seventeen, making an average in the fifteen states of one and one-half agencies absorbed by each new code department. It will be seen, therefore, that the reduction was not large in comparison with the total number of agencies existing before reorgan-

ization, which we were informed ran into the hundreds. Today, however, as a result of the tendency to decentralization, which has occurred since reorganization, there appears to be almost as many agencies as before reorganization.

Indeed the reduction by the codes in some states such as Virginia was so slight that the reorganization was in effect "piecemeal." The Massachusetts consolidation, according to Mr. Buck, was so insignificant that it accomplished no reduction. Yet it leads ten other states. South Dakota, with only two reorganized functional departments, accomplished a greater reduction than nine other states.

Many abolished agencies were of minor administrative importance. Thus five of eight abolished agencies in Pennsylvania were memorial commissions. Some abolished agencies were inactive before reorganization. Other agencies, whose functions were important, were abolished and their functions were not given to any other agencies. This was not consolidation but cessation of desirable government activities. Sometimes proper government functions were eliminated, apparently because they were performed by plural-headed agencies, which reorganizers considered the wrong type of overhead organization. The Ohio code, for instance, eliminated the Board of Charities which was performing a valuable public service.

In nearly every state whole functional fields were left outside the code structure. On the other hand, numerous "reorganized" departments absorbed no functions of abolished agencies, but were merely the same old departments, which were placed bodily within the code structure without alteration. In Minnesota only four of the fourteen code departments were in fact new departments, although three others absorbed one minor advisory or inspectional function each. In New York only one-half, in Maryland one-third, and in Pennsylvania one-seventh of the reorganized departments absorbed new functions.

Some departments are departments in name only, such as headless departments, departments composed primarily of attached semi-independent bodies, and departments in which divisions are in practice separate agencies. This third type is not evident from the tables and not easy to discern from legal provisions, because such agencies have the outward form of integrated departments with individual heads. Thus the

five divisions of the Ohio commerce department are in effect independent agencies. Banking divisions in commerce and "finance" departments often have this independent status. Such status is generally the result of appointment of division chiefs by the governor and of provisions giving them immunity from control by department heads. Some division chiefs are elective officers under departments headed by governor-appointed individuals. This confusion increases when the governor appoints or approves the appointment of subordinates in the elective officer's division. For example, the elective state auditor in South Dakota heads the division of audits and accounts of the governor's finance department—a strange arrangement which makes the auditor the chief fiscal control officer of the state and the source of financial information for the governor.

Consolidations have violated the principle of functional departmentalization by uniting totally unrelated functions. Departments have also been overloaded with too many functions for one director to oversee. This applies particularly to public works, welfare, and business-regulating departments. Demands have been made that such departments be broken up into several separate agencies or placed under plural heads. As a result, decentralization has often occurred since reorganization. To cite one of many examples, in Illinois the reorganized department of trade and commerce was abolished in 1933, and this functional field is as decentralized as before 1917.

The foregoing summary indicates that even on paper there are fewer consolidations than claimed, and that the codes as administered are more decentralized than they seem from the law, so that administrative structure, in fact, is still a diffuse organization in these fifteen states.

(2) Let us now turn from consolidation of agencies to our second category, the placement of code departments under single heads appointed by the governor. According to the basic principle of reorganization, only departments so headed should be included within the code structure. In fact, some reorganization supporters assert that, if the consolidated departments are not so headed, the resulting structure will be worse than under the former decentralized system. But from Table II, evidently this principle has not been consistently applied. In only six states are all code departments so headed. In six

other states only one-half or less of their code departments are so headed, namely, New York only one-half, Vermont less than half, Massachusetts one-third, Maryland less than one-third, Minnesota one-sixth, and Virginia less than one-sixth.

Comparing totals of all code departments in the fifteen states, plural-headed or other disapproved types are three-fourths as great in number as the governor-appointed single-headed departments.

The failure to place all departments under single heads appointed by the governor has often been excused as a concession to political expediency. Such apologies seem inadequate, especially when cases of expediency equal or outnumber cases of principle. In any event, the large proportion of plural-headed reorganized departments makes it difficult to estimate the value of the one-man-control plan.

Not all single-headed departments, listed in Table II, column 2, are reorganization achievements in changing departments from plural to single heads because many were single headed before reorganization. In Minnesota all single headed departments were such before reorganization, while all four new departments were placed under plural heads in violation of the reorganization principle. In Maryland six of the nineteen departments are single-headed, but four of these were so before reorganization. Hence a change to single heads was achieved in only two instances. Even in Ohio, where all departments were headed by individuals, only three were changed from plural to single heads. The method of appointing the heads of seven New York departments was not changed under reorganization.

Headless departments consist of a group of divisions nominally in one department but actually operating independently. Divisions in these headless departments are in most instances under plural heads or elective officers rather than single heads appointed by the governor.

The facts concerning overhead organization, a few of which are cited here, indicate that the reorganization movement has not been able to carry through the basic principle of governor-appointed single-headed departments.

(3) The third category in this paper deals with the status of elective officers under the codes. The reorganization principle is violated by the codes in that elective officers are

placed at the head of code departments and units in a great many instances, and in that general provisions are made for installing elective officers at the head of any code departments. Strangely enough, reorganization leaders themselves advocated the placing of elective officers at the head of code departments and in positions of authority under the codes.

In Idaho the governor may designate any elective officer to head any department. This provision has been defended because it has saved salaries. An outstanding feature of the Idaho administration is the large influence of numerous constitutional and statutory elective officers. Besides their own departments, they control about a dozen ex-officio agencies. Governor Davis of Idaho favored placing elective officers at the head of departments as provided in his code. During his second term, the finance department was in fact abolished and its fiscal control functions transferred to the elective auditor, and now financial functions are divided among eight or more separate agencies. One Idaho executive, who defends the 1919 reorganization, recently stated: "The elective officers are and always have been the principal officers of the state and have performed the fundamental administrative duties."

The Washington code provides that the governor may "appoint any elective officer as director of any department." One Washington reorganizer declared that there was no objection to increasing the power of elective officers, that the code justifiably transferred duties to elective officers, and that "there was a distinct expectation that certain departments would be administered by elective officials . . . The department of taxation and examination was formulated with the thought in mind that the state auditor would be made (its) director." Nine ex-officio administrative committees were created "to tie in the (elective) officers with the code." Although the Washington code could have abolished four constitutional and statutory elective officers, including the auditor, and transferred the statutory functions of others, it actually increased their powers.

In Nebraska the constitutional amendment of 1920, a year after reorganization, implemented somewhat the reorganization achievements, but they also enhanced the authority of elective officers other than the governor. The amendments

created four constitutional agencies making a total of seventeen, and provided: "The legislature may (place) . . . the elective officers as heads over such departments . . . as it may by law create." Mr. Buck indicated that, if the elective officers would head the consolidated departments, the situation would be worse than under the former decentralized system. These fears have been partially realized in Nebraska, for code functions have been transferred to constitutional officers and independent agencies, the finance department has been abolished, and, in fact, the original code structure has been virtually obliterated.

This inconsistent attitude concerning elective officers exists in other states. Thus in Tennessee, which carried the one-man-control principle farther than any other state, the budgeting and accounting functions were transferred in 1933 from the finance department to the legislature-elected comptroller. One prominent advocate of the original Tennessee reorganization justified this change and said that it mattered little whether fiscal control was under the governor or the comptroller.

The evidence concerning elective officers indicates that they occupy positions of large influence under the codes, and that the code sponsors have aided in the retention of elective officers in contradiction of the principle of concentration of authority in the governor.

(4) The fourth category concerns the extent and status of agencies attached to the code departments. The facts summarized in Table III, column 2, indicate that reorganization in these states as a whole was achieved to a greater extent by attaching semi-independent agencies to code departments than by abolishing agencies and merging their functions in integrated departments.

The total number of attached agencies in the fifteen states is 564, while the total reduction through abolishment was 259. Hence over twice as many agencies were attached as were abolished. In each of nine states the number of attached agencies exceeds the number abolished. The four states with the largest number of attached agencies are New York with 120, Pennsylvania 103, Massachusetts 80, California 70. The seven states in which the proportion of attachment to abolishment is greatest are: Maryland over fifteen to one, Pennsylvania almost thirteen to one, New York seven and one-half

to one, Massachusetts over four to one, Virginia almost four to one, Ohio three to one, and California over two to one.

The process of attachment in contrast to abolishment did not greatly increase the governor's control over administration. Almost all attached agencies are plural-headed and largely independent of the governor. When attached agencies are under heads of departments which are independent of the governor, he is farther removed from control than if they had been left unattached. Often the governor appoints many of the officers who head these attached agencies. Thus, in Pennsylvania, where there are many attached agencies, the governor appoints some 670 code officers, and there are, in addition, over 200 ex-officio officers heading code agencies. Hence, in spite of comprehensive reorganization, the administration is complicated by the existence of plural-headed attached agencies; and, although the governor's burden of appointing many officers is great, his control over administration is restricted.

Many vital functions are performed by such attached agencies as utilities, tax, and industrial commissions. This is true even in states where the reorganization plan has been carried out most consistently, such as Ohio and Illinois. When the attached agencies perform most of the departmental functions, the department is usually one in name only. Many attached agencies are virtually unattached in practice. Thus in Ohio, most of the twenty-three attached agencies are in fact independent.

Frequently so much confusion of authority has resulted from attaching agencies to code departments that administration of vital functions has been seriously impaired. In Ohio authorities have charged that the purpose of attaching the industrial commission to the code department of industrial relations was to destroy the workmen's compensation system. Ohio's unfortunate experience with the industrial commission and also with the attached utilities and tax commissions has become widely known. As a result, other reorganized states have avoided such methods of attachment, have placed commissions at the head of code departments, or have left them outside the code structure. A similar situation existed with like commissions in Illinois, and now these agencies in Ohio and Illinois, as a result of amending the codes, are either independent agencies or are granted virtual independence.

From the data on attached agencies thus summarized in this category, it appears that reorganization was accomplished more by the process of attachment than by abolishment; that the former process has not materially enlarged the governor's control of administration, has tended to increase the complexity of the administrative structure, has resulted in paper rather than actual integration, and has frequently resulted in confusion of authority where actual integration has been attempted.

(5) Concerning the fifth category, the governor's appointing power, it is often contended that the governor should appoint only the individual department heads, because he is thus relieved of the burden of appointing a mass of petty subordinates and is enabled to concentrate his efforts upon broad administrative policy. This relief would be a most commendable by-product of reorganization if it could be accomplished. But Table V indicates that reorganization has not removed this burden. For example, the governor appoints in Pennsylvania some 670, in California and New York over 400, and in Illinois over 300 code officers. In Massachusetts the governor and council appoint some fifty officers to head only the sixteen appointive departments. In Nebraska the governor must appoint each and every officer and employee under the code.

The reasons for this burden in general are: the limited scope of reorganization; consolidation by attachment rather than abolishment; the existence of large numbers of plural-headed code departments, plural-headed divisions of headless departments, plural-headed attached agencies, and many unreorganized agencies most of which are plural-headed; and, finally, the requirement that the governor appoint subordinates within reorganized and unreorganized agencies.

Because of legal requirements that the governor appoint department heads and subordinate employees, and because of his opportunity to dictate the appointment of employees generally, one authority on public administration has stated that the reason political parties have supported the codes is that "it permits the rapid allocation of spoils while retaining the fiction of efficiency and civil service."

The reorganization objective of centralizing administrative control in the governor through his appointing power is further complicated with the difficulty of coordinating his

own tenure with that of department heads. This coordination has been only partially accomplished. This is mainly owing to the prevalence of plural-headed departments and agencies. But the terms of even single appointive heads were not always coordinated. Thus in Massachusetts and South Dakota all single appointive heads serve for longer terms than the governor. On the other hand, in New York the governor enjoyed perhaps a greater increase of power from partial coordination of tenure than from any other change.

If time permitted, this paper would include data on the changes since reorganization. From these data it is safe to conclude that the "natural tendency toward decentralization" has reasserted itself. This has gone farther than some authorities realize. Tennessee, for instance, is still being described in texts as the most ideal reorganization. Yet in 1933 the governor's appointing and removal power was restricted and his fiscal control functions eliminated. The motives for decentralization are both selfish and altruistic. The selfish ones are manifested by "ripper bills" and partisan tinkering with the administrative machine, and the altruistic ones by the reaction against overloaded departments and confusion of authority arising from attached agencies and by the desire of professional and reform groups to take particular services out of spoils politics. The result of decentralization is that some codes, as originally constituted, have been virtually obliterated, and others have been largely disorganized.

And now in conclusion: in answering the question, to what extent did the reorganization movement actually reorganize the states? the facts indicate the following: (1) Even on paper, consolidation by the reorganization laws is limited, and in practice it is still more limited. (2) Plural-headed, headless, and elective-headed code departments have been retained in violation of the one-man-control principle. (3) The concentration of responsibility in the governor has been defeated by the use of independent elective officers for administrative functions. (4) Attached agencies are relatively independent in spite of apparent consolidation by the codes, and often result in confusion. (5) In both law and practice, the governor is still burdened with many appointments and may still allocate political patronage. (6) Disintegrating influences have tended to destroy the codes since their adoption.

Any attempt to calculate efficiency and economy in these fifteen states must take into consideration two factors. First, the one-man-control plan has not been adequately tried in any one of these states. Second, the reorganization plan must be distinguished from such other reforms as functional departmentalization and the use of modern methods of budgeting, accounting, and purchasing which may be a part of many other forms of government organization and are not an inherent part of the one-man-control plan. Therefore, efficiency and economy arising from functional departmentalization and modern fiscal procedure should not be attributed to the application of the doctrine of making an elective political governor a chief administrator.

**TABLE I**  
*Former Agencies Absorbed by Reorganized Departments*  
*At Time of Reorganization*  
**States In Order Of Actual Reduction**

STATES	Total Depts. (Present)	Depts. Consol.*	Agencies Abolished	Actual Reduction	Other Claims Regarding Abolishment
1. Illinois	10	8	45	37	Lowden: 125 Cleveland, Buck over 100
2. California	14	7	39	33	Buck: No reduction 1921 (My estimate about 25)
3. Idaho	7	8	38	30	Davis: 51. Buck: some 50
4. Tennessee	8	7	30	23	Puryear: 80, Buck: 49
5. Massachusetts	20	13	30	20	Buck: No reduction
6. South Dakota	2	2	21	19	Buck: 27
7. New York	18	9	17	16	Mastick: Substantially none abolished.
8. Minnesota	12	7	19	15	Wittich: 25
9. Washington	11	8	35	13	Hart: 70 odd Buck: about 70
10. Vermont	7	6	14	12	Buck: over 20
11. Virginia	13	7	13	12	Tucker: over 30 Buck: "few" abolished
12. Nebraska	6	6	17	11	Gettys: 24, Buck: 18, 24 Senning: 46
13. Pennsylvania	21	3	11	8	Fox: 22
14. Ohio	9	4	15	7	Buck: "Most" agen. abol. Coker: 10, Econ. Com.: 21
15. Maryland	19	6	9	3	Buck: No reduction Rohr: many abolished

\*"Depts. consol.": depts. which absorbed functions of agencies abolished.

California: includes agencies abolished in 1919, 1921, 1927.

Washington: 15 examining boards were declared abolished but were placed in Dept. of Licenses and are appointed by governor; hence, not included in "actual reduction." See table on Examining Boards.

Virginia: If 4 divisions of Finance Department are independent agencies, as other writers maintain, the "actual reduction" would be 10.

Pennsylvania: 5 of 8 were memorial commissions.

Ohio: Chief "reduction" under Commerce Dept.; yet Economy Committee (1929) declared its 5 divisions were in fact independent agencies and recommended it be broken into 5 separate departments.

TABLE II

*Overhead Organization of Reorganized Departments*  
Including Unattached Executive Council (Minn.) and  
Adm. Committees (Wash.)

STATES	Number Depts.	Govr. Appt. Sing.	Govr. Appt. Plur.	Elect. Sing.	Legis. Appt. Sing.	Legis. Appt. Plur.	Group Depts.	Appt. Bd. & Ex. Off.	Ex-Off. Council	Adm. Comit.
California	14	8	2				3	1		
Idaho	7	7								
Illinois	10	10								
Maryland	19	6	10	2			1			
Massachusetts	20	7	7	4			2			
Minnesota	12	2	9						1	
Nebraska	6	6								
New York	18	9	4	3		2				
Ohio	9	9								
Pennsylvania	21	15	3	3						
South Dakota	2	2								
Tennessee	8	8								
Vermont	7	3	4							
Virginia	13	2	6	1	1	1	2			
Wash. (11 & 5)	16*	10	1							5

\*Washington: 16 code agencies include 11 code depts. & 5 adm. committees.  
Grouped Department: See Next Table.

Explanation of Abbreviations: GOVR. indicates governor; APPT. indicates appoints or appointive; SING., single heads; PLUR., plural head; ELECT., elective; LEGISL., legislature; GROUP DEPTS., grouped or headless departments; BD., board; EX OFF., ex-officio; ADM. COMT., administrative committee.

**TABLE III**  
*Total Number of Reorganized and Unreorganized  
 Departments and Agencies*

STATES	Code Dpts. & Adm. Coms.*	Attached Agencies**	Grouped Dpts. (Divisions)	Unreorg. Agencies	Totals
California	14	70	16	35	135
Idaho	7	1		37	45
Illinois	10	46		52	108
Maryland	19	44	3	20	86
Massachusetts	20	80	5	40	145
Minnesota	12			70	82
Nebraska	6	2		35	43
New York	18	120		50	188
Ohio	9	23		40	72
Pennsylvania	21	103		9	133
South Dakota	2			65	67
Tennessee	8	9		45	61
Vermont	7	1		50	60
Virginia	13	43	7	27	90
Washington (11 & 5)	16	(5 & 17)22		40	78

\*Washington: 5 Administrative Committees are added to the code departments; 17 examining committees appointed by the governor are added to the 5 attached agencies.

Illinois: 13 state societies are added to the 39 non-code agencies.

Minnesota: 15 state societies are added to 55 unreorganized agencies; at least two of which are important administrative agencies.

Virginia: 20 "miscellaneous agencies" are added to the unreorganized agencies.

New York: "Attached agencies" do not include 10 examining boards under Education Dept.; appt. by Bd. of Regents.

Illinois: Attached agencies includes both advisory and admin. boards but not examining boards. (See table on examining boards).

\*\*Attached agencies are plural-headed with a few exceptions and include agencies attached to reorganized departments and to the governor's office.

TABLE IV

*States In Order of Total Numbers of Departments and Agencies*

STATE	Total	Reorg. Depts. Single-Headed Appt. by Gov'r.
1. New York	188	9
2. Massachusetts	145	7
3. California	135	8
4. Pennsylvania	133	15
5. Illinois	108	10
6. Virginia	90	2
7. Maryland	86	6
8. Minnesota	82	2
9. Washington	78	10
10. South Dakota	67	2
11. Ohio	72	9
12. Tennessee	61	8
13. Vermont	60	3
14. Idaho	45	7
15. Nebraska	43	6

TABLE V

*Number of Officers Appointed by Governor in Reorganized Board*

STATES	Under Reorg. Depts. & Agencies	Non-Code Agencies	Total
California	400+	100	500
Idaho	25	30	55
Illinois	300+	80+	380+
Maryland	260+	75	340
Minnesota	39	141	180
New York	435+		
Ohio	115+	120+	235+
Pennsylvania	670		
South Dakota	2		200
Tennessee			200
Vermont	24	70	94
Virginia	255+	20	275+
Washington	60+	60+	120+

Figures in this table are approximate in many instances.

Massachusetts: Not tabulated, but the governor appoints fifty officers who head the sixteen appointive departments. Although the exact number of appointments has not been tabulated, it appears that the Governor must make a larger number of appointments in Massachusetts than in any other state.

South Dakota: Subordinate officers and employees appointed by heads of the two code departments, with consent of Governor. This provision is frequently found in other codes.

Illinois: Governor also appoints certain employees and approves appointment of others.

California: Governor authorized to appoint 675 heads of code agencies but at present appoints some 400.

Pennsylvania: In addition over 200 ex-officio officers head code agencies.

Vermont: Several states have many ex-officio bodies. Thus Vermont has 19 ex-officio bodies.

Virginia: Prof. Pate states that the Governor appoints "hundreds of officers" but exercises only slight control over administration.

## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: A NEW WORLD CIVILIZATION

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Those British colonies which developed into the United States of America prospered and grew because natural conditions favored their settlement by Europeans. They occupied the eastern coast of North America between the regions known as Canada and Florida. Their location directly across the Atlantic from Western Europe facilitated the coming of colonists, the acquisition of essential supplies, and the marketing of colonial products. The characteristic grain, vegetable, and fruit crops of Europe proved successful in these middle latitude lands. Indigenous New World crops—particularly corn and tobacco—greatly enriched colonial agriculture. European livestock was introduced and raised in all the colonies. Wild game and fur bearing animals could be obtained in the forest, and the timber was used as building material and fuel.

These favorable conditions enabled people to make a living in the colonies and produce some exportable commodities. The latter allowed the purchase of tools, utensils, fire-arms, powder, and other European manufactures. Thus colonial society maintained a standard of living sufficiently high to enable the rapid natural increase of resident population and the attraction of immigrants from Europe.

The basic reason why most of North America became an Anglo-Saxon land is commonly overlooked. Britain, France, and Netherlands struggled for possessions in eastern North America. In this competition Great Britain had the significant advantage inherent in an island base, while her antagonists were continental countries. Britain, sheltered from land attack by her ocean girdle, could safely concentrate her energy upon the construction of a superior navy. France and Netherlands were severely handicapped as sea powers by the necessity of providing for the strong defense of their land frontiers. This situation allowed Great Britain to obtain control of the sea. Then the superior naval power of Britain enabled her to isolate colonies of France and Netherlands from the mother nations, and to conquer and annex them to her own overseas empire.

The colonies occupied a compact territory well suited to nourish the growth of a nation. They held the basins of many short rivers which flow from the Appalachian Mountains to the sea. In the north and south they were bounded by lands which were most easily dominated from the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Gulf of Mexico respectively. This long coastal area could have developed into several small nations, but political unity was promoted by the continuity of the land and its frontage upon the Atlantic. It was sealed by the cultural unity of the people and general similarity of both internal and external political problems.

The colonies were subject to the British crown, but multitudes of their people felt little loyalty to that government. Thus Dutch people colonized a section about Hudson River only to suffer the misfortunes of conquest and annexation by Great Britain. Thousands of Germans settled in Pennsylvania and adjacent colonies, but they acknowledged little obligations to England. Irish people were numerous in all the colonies. They were driven from Ireland by the material and spiritual decay which resulted from continuous British misrule there. They brought to America an abiding hatred for the British crown. Moreover, in the interior and frontier sections the colonists were isolated from vital contact with Great Britain. They found it necessary to act independently in the solution of problems which beset life in those forested outskirts of civilization. These people received little assistance from the London government, and naturally their loyalty to it ebbed low.

The colonists were accustomed to exercise the right of self-government. The first settlers came from Great Britain and they transplanted the British Parliamentary system of government in the New World. Legislative assemblies, whose members were elected by the voters, levied all taxes and passed laws which governed the several colonies. Thus the people became convinced that their representatives—and they alone—had the right to levy taxes and enact colonial legislation.

As the colonies grew they became estranged from the mother country. Their governments soon came to be dominated by people reared on American soil, who knew America, not England, as their native land. Irish people supplied an anti-British leaven which worked quietly in all parts of the country, while German immigrants served to dilute the tradition of British allegiance. The rise of colonial trade, shipbuilding,

and manufacturing put the merchant and industrial classes into competition with those of Great Britain. And British legislation, designed to suppress this competition, alienated leading Americans who were able to organize effective resistance and launch a New World nation. Thus the seed-bed of revolution was prepared, and when the storm broke most of the colonial population rallied to the patriot cause.

Events preceding the Revolution taught the colonies the art of cooperation for common defense, and developed their military power—that positive and indispensable guarantee of sovereignty. In the wars between France and England for control of North America, colonial forces battled with British regulars against the armies of France and her Indian allies. Clinging to the land between the Appalachians and the ocean, the colonies organized militia and expended blood and treasure to remove the Indian menace and break French power in the New World. Thus, when fear of France was removed, the Americans dared assert their rights against the armed might of Great Britain.

The colonies were much weaker than the mother country in population and in political organization, nor were their industries able to equip armies so well as were those of the enemy. However, they had some compensating advantages. They met the enemy on American soil, and fought to defend their own firesides; whereas the British had to cross the Atlantic and endeavor to maintain imperial power in a remote land, separated from England by a broad expanse of ocean.

The vast extent of colonial territory and the absence of good roads were tremendous assets to the Americans. In order to win the war it was necessary for Britain to suppress the revolt everywhere. She could overcome resistance here and there, but when her armies moved to other areas the revolt flared up anew, and British resources were insufficient to garrison all of the colonial territory. Wretched colonial roads bound the British armies to the ports where their vessels lay. When an army invaded the interior, its supplies were threatened or cut off by Revolutionary forces, and this necessitated prompt retreat to the shore. Also the movements of British armies were hampered by the forests and unbridged rivers, which abounded everywhere, and the mountains and marsh lands which characterized some sections.

For eight trying years the rival armies contended. There

was a vast amount of marching and counter-marching, of fighting battles and harrassing enemy forces. Most of the time the Americans were retreating before well-equipped British armies, but occasionally they struck a decisive blow. Thus the insurgents maintained their organization, and at length secured the active assistance of France and Spain. When hope of subduing the Americans was gone, the British acknowledged the independence of their erstwhile colonies, and conceded them all the territory south of the Great Lakes and east of the Mississippi River.

While the war for independence was raging the colonies formed a confederation, but interstate dissention developed after the British armies withdrew. State governments quarreled over the location of boundaries and their rival claims to land west of the Appalachians. Each state issued a currency and enacted tariffs, embargoes, and port regulations designed to promote its own prosperity. These commercial restrictions and lack of a common medium of exchange paralyzed interstate trade. Foreign commerce was ruined by British refusal to permit Americans to participate in the Grand Banks fisheries or in the trade of the British West Indies. The "Continental Congress" sought in vain to make commercial treaties with other countries because it was unable to make the American states abide by the terms of any agreement.

Loss of both foreign and interstate trade caused a severe commercial depression. Money and credit all but disappeared, and multitudes were unable to pay their debts. Social and political unrest became so acute that complete anarchy threatened. These trying conditions convinced the people that they should set up a capable federal government—one empowered to issue money and levy taxes, to regulate commerce and maintain military forces.

It was apparent that the states could be welded into a nation. The English language was in general use and the cultural pattern was basically British everywhere. Joint possession of a vast region west of the Appalachians was another bond of union. This territory could not be divided equitably among the Atlantic states, but a strong federal government could direct its development to the advantage of all. Free from European domination, the Americans had an opportunity to organize a government without defects apparent in the European system. Therefore, after some years

of discord, a Constitution or plan for union was adopted in 1788, formally combining the states into a nation.

Conditions were such that expansion of the new nation was inevitable. A high birth rate prevailed among the population, and European immigration constantly augmented its numbers. The population increased because there was abundant room for people. Settlement was sparse even on the Atlantic slope, while to the westward stretched the almost uninhabited interior of the continent. The heroic Indian tribesmen were so few in number and so primitive in culture that they could offer no serious resistance to the steady encroachment of Americans. There were also a few French and Spanish settlements, but none that could hope to stay the oncoming tide of American pioneers.

Geographical barriers were present, but they were successfully crossed by the expanding people. Pack trains and wagons followed gaps in the Appalachian ranges to the fertile lands along the "western rivers." Flatboats and steamships bore pioneer families onward to the Mississippi and along the lower courses of its western tributaries. Thence the irresistible movement pressed by prairie schooner and wagon train into the vast prairie, mountain, and arid sections in the western half of the continent. Thus by 1846 the Oregon country was occupied, and 1850 found the American flag and thousands of its sturdy adherents firmly planted in California.

Internal development of the United States has proceeded upon an enormous scale. A vast and richly endowed homeland provided a firm basis for mighty growth. Great expanses of arable, grazing, and forest land, lavish deposits of coal, petroleum, and natural gas, together with rich ores of iron, copper, and aluminum tempted the people to large scale production. Because resources were abundant and workers were relatively few, machinery of many sorts was devised and put to use. Thus agriculture, manufacturing, transportation, and business were so mechanized as to possess greater productive power than in other lands. Having world leadership in such basic materials as cotton, corn, livestock, lumber, coal, petroleum, and iron ore, the country gained first place in the output of foods, clothing, iron and steel, railway equipment, electrical appliances, automobiles, and airplanes. In fact, the United States now leads all nations as an industrial power.

Almost everything vital to the life of the nation is produced within its boundaries. All important crops, excepting those confined to equatorial regions, can be grown in some section of the national homeland, and our protective tariff has fostered the growth of various agricultural industries which find favorable conditions in different parts of the country. The tariff has also preserved the enormous home market for American manufacturing firms, with the result that a vast variety of goods is produced within the nation. Thus, with the exception of a few commercial staples including coffee, rubber, silk, and tin, the United States is self sufficient or can become so within her own boundaries.

Many mechanical and industrial contributions to the advance of civilization have been made. The vast size of the country made transportation and communication very pressing problems. Consequently, the United States has led in the improvement of transportation facilities—first of river steamboats, and more recently of the railroad, automobile, and airplane. She also led in development of the telegraph and telephone. Vast areas of good agricultural land, coupled with a relatively scanty labor supply, fostered the development of many sorts of farm machinery. A similar relationship between industrial resources and labor supply stimulated the improvement of factory machinery, the better integration of manufacturing activities, and development of the technique of mass production. These improvements so enlarged the per capita production that real wages advanced, and the living standards of American workers have consistently remained higher than those of Old World countries.

Territorial expansion has proceeded far beyond the continental domain. In the West Indies, Port Rico and the Virgin Islands have been annexed, and a protectorate has been extended over Cuba. Trans-Pacific expansion has attained far greater proportions because in that realm development came after the United States had become a great power. Here our chief possessions are Alaska on the North American mainland, Hawaii in the mid-Pacific, and the Phillipines located near the Asiatic shore.

Yet the most vital overseas possession of United States is at Panama, where a narrow zone, extending across the isthmus on either side of a ship canal which connects the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, is under American sovereignty.

This strategic possession completes a waterway between our Atlantic and Pacific ports to their great commercial advantage. It also enables the nation to marshal quickly its naval forces in either ocean when an emergency arises.

Among New World nations the United States is the one out-standing power. Although not the largest American country, she overshadows all others in material resources, productive power, number of population, and in stage of industrial development. Her military leadership is unchallenged, and she is the only appreciable naval power of the Western Hemisphere. Therefore, she plays the role of "protector" to Latin American nations, and is often accused of dominating these relatively weak states.

In general, the nation has pursued a New World policy in foreign affairs generally known as the Monroe Doctrine. This doctrine asserts our detachment from the political rivalries and wars of Europe, and forbids Old World nations to interfere in or seek to control the destiny of American Republics.

This foreign policy adequately safeguarded the interests of the nation until the Spanish-American War. Then the victorious United States appropriated the Philippine Islands and other remnants of the once vast overseas empire of Spain. But possession of the Philippines and annexation of Hawaii greatly increased our interests in the Pacific and necessitated a vast extension of American foreign policy in that ocean.

When the great European war began in 1914 the United States was an impartial observer. But her geographical location with respect to the warring nations, together with the naval supremacy of Great Britain, practically terminated American trade with the Central Powers and favored the vast expansion of that with Great Britain and France. The tremendous overseas market thus secured brought unprecedented industrial and commercial activity; and a great wave of "prosperity", based upon contracts to furnish munitions and other supplies to the Western Powers, swept the country. Thus the United States became an industrial and commercial ally of Great Britain and France, and this relationship led slowly but surely to armed American participation in the war upon the side of the Western Powers. The vast resources of the nation were organized for intervention in the mighty struggle, and it was soon brought to a successful conclusion.

After fighting ceased a great reaction swept the country.

The Senate refused to ratify the treaty of Versailles and the covenant of the League of Nations. And when the war President took the issue to the people in a national election his party and program were repudiated by an avalanche of ballots. Thus the nation quickly reverted to the policy of non-intervention in Old World affairs. The completeness of this reversion is indicated by the passage of a measure providing for gradual severance of political ties with the Philippine Islands, and the enactment of neutrality legislation, designed to prevent entanglement in future European wars. Public opinion undoubtedly wishes to restrict the foreign policy of the nation to the New World if not to North American affairs.

Yet the military power of the nation is being steadily augmented. Naval armament is stressed because that branch of the Service seems able to protect the nation from every dangerous enemy. No New World power would be a formidable adversary, and Old World powers must cross the ocean in order to reach our territory. Therefore the nation seems resolved to possess "a navy second to none" in order to guarantee the safety of its shores. It is now engaged in a huge building program designed to bring the fleet to full equality with that of Great Britain. Also the nation has forged one of the world's greatest air forces, and the army has grown both in size and efficiency, particularly with a view to enable its rapid expansion when an emergency arises.

With military power adequate for national defense—yet sufficiently mobile that it can strike anywhere—and with enormous industrial power, the United States occupies a key position in the modern world. Her material and human resources are such that she can build the world's greatest naval armament, sieze control of the oceans, and enjoy a position similar to that which has long been held by Great Britain. Since her homeland is continental in extent rather than insular she could become a magnified Great Britain. Location between the two great oceans with Europe upon the one hand the Orient upon the other, together with control of an interoceanic ship canal, gives her vast commercial and military advantages. Their full utilization should enable the country to maintain a position of world leadership; but social decay, marked by mounting rates of crime, divorce, and race suicide, is making such progress as to threaten the future greatness of the nation.

## FARM MANAGEMENT RESEARCH AND AGRICULTURAL ADJUSTMENT IN THE SOUTHWEST

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It is reasonable to assume that programs as all-inclusive and far-reaching in their effects on the economic life of farm people as the agricultural adjustment programs could not but result in significant changes in research programs in farm management. It must be recognized, however, that other forces, such as available research funds, changes in personnel, and the gradual evolution of ideas as to research procedure, are operating to change our research programs. Here, as is often the case where numerous forces are operating to bring about change, it may not be possible to indicate clearly cause and effect relationships. We propose to describe the evolution of our research program in farm management in Texas, calling particular attention to those modifications which can be traced in part at least to the existence of the agricultural adjustment programs. We shall also endeavor to outline a plan through which both research and extension programs in farm management could be greatly advanced and a sound basis for the administration of agricultural adjustment programs established.

Farm management research in the southwest, and particularly in Texas, is of comparatively recent origin. Our Division of Farm and Ranch Economics was organized in 1919 and almost immediately found itself confronted with the problems of the post-war depression. One of the first publications of the Division was a circular by Dr. A. B. Cox entitled, "Cost of Production; its Relation to Price." This was issued in December, 1920, just a few months after the sharp break in the price level and at a time when farm leaders were insisting on cost of production plus a fair profit. In addition to an explanation of the relationship existing between cost and price, this publication also contained an explanation of the then present price situation, and "a sound policy to be followed under present conditions" was outlined.

Actually the first publication of the Division was a bulletin in which an attempt was made to explain the mysteries of

"farm records and accounts" to farmers. This publication was closely followed by one dealing with farmer-owned cotton gins. Both of these publications were more of the extension type of publication than of the research type. We mention these publications as we feel that they are the best indications of the nature of the first work of the Division.

Before going further, we perhaps should recall that farm management, as a subject of research, began in this country at about the turn of the last century. For a period of almost 20 years, cost of production studies more or less characterized the type of research done. The Texas Station escaped this phase in the evolution of its farm management program. This was probably due to the time of organization and to the training of the personnel. Dr. Youngblood, H. M. Eliot, A. B. Cox, and L. P. Gabbard, the men who have directed economic research at the Texas Station from its beginning, all received their advanced training at Wisconsin. The Agricultural Economics group at that institution were among the first to question the usefulness of enterprise costs as a basis for planning the management of farms.

Dr. Youngblood and Dr. Cox began their agricultural economic survey of a typical ranching area on the Edwards Plateau in 1920. This study and a subsequent similar study of a typical blackland county by Mr. Gabbard occupied most of the time of the staff from 1920 through 1924 and more nearly characterizes the early work of the Division than do the publications mentioned above. These studies, which touched on every phase of farm life, were exploratory in nature and were planned as the first step in a broad attack on the economic and social problems of farmers and ranchmen in these areas. It was planned to follow these exploratory surveys by intensive studies of problems of management, marketing, credit, tenancy, and of rural social life. In addition to being characterized as exploratory, these early years were also a period of explanation and definition. The two publications reporting the results of these studies contained sixteen pages of definitions. The field of agricultural economics was defined in great detail, and much space was devoted to an explanation of the relation of agricultural economics to other divisions of the research field.

It is evident from the writings and statements of the leaders of these early studies that a program of research in farm

management was evolving, but the program itself did not emerge until 1924 when the legislature provided for the appointment of two assistants—one in ranch records and accounts and the other in farm records and accounts. Following these appointments, detailed studies of the organization and management of selected ranches and farms were begun in the recently surveyed Edwards Plateau and Blackland areas.

This type of study is familiar to most students of agricultural economics. Usually 25 to 30 representative farmers were assisted in keeping detailed records of every phase of farm organization and operation. These records were used as a basis for testing the workability and income possibilities of various combinations of farm enterprises. This type of study with some minor alterations characterized our research program in farm management from 1925 through 1930. During this time Purnell Funds became available, and a specialist to devote full time to farm management research was added to the staff in 1927.

It was about this time that the need for an orientation study involving the entire state had become evident. The location of projects previously initiated had been limited to areas of distinct characterization. Looking to an expanding program in the future, it was felt that such a study was needed if mistakes in location were to be avoided. It was also felt that research and extension generally could benefit greatly from such a study. The answer to this need was our first type-of-farming analysis begun in 1928 and published in 1931. This publication has been helpful to practically all fields of agricultural research and extension, but more particularly to farm management research. It has given us a picture of the nature of production in the different parts of the state which could have been obtained only very slowly through observation. It has served to bring to our attention the size of the task, to which we are assigned, of bringing together basic farm management data for the use of farmers and farm leaders in planning the utilization of the land resources in the different type-of-farming areas and in considering questions of agricultural policy as they may affect the agriculture of particular areas. This, in turn, has served to make us examine our research procedures with the hope of speeding up the accumulation and interpretation of basic data.

These type-of-farming studies and the detailed farm management studies made within each type-of-farming area have become the foundation of our research program. Since 1930 developments in farm management research have been characterized by changes in detail of procedure rather than in the nature of the program itself. Larger samples are required and more attention is paid to environmental factors such as soil type, topography, rainfall, rainfall variability, etc. in their influence on organization and management.

This brings us to the period of influence of the agricultural adjustment programs introduced by the cotton plow-up program in 1933. It is needless to review with this group the hectic conditions surrounding the initiation of these programs. It is perhaps sufficient to say that all else appeared of little consequence at that time. Heavy demands were made on our farm management personnel in the administration of the early programs. During the latter part of 1933, all of 1934, and the early part of 1935, the time of our specialist was almost entirely absorbed in some administrative phase of these programs or in other so-called "new deal" activities. It is fair to say, I believe, that these early programs affected our farm management program only through absorption of our personnel and by complicating somewhat the job of obtaining data on the farm. On the other hand, the first two years of the adjustment programs served to make clear the need for a type of program which would permit adjustments in keeping with good farm management. Perhaps the initial step in the direction of developing such a program was the setting up of the Planning Division within the AAA. Early in 1935 this Division requested the cooperation of all experiment stations for a concerted study of agricultural problems and adjustments by type-of-farming areas. This project called for the delineation of type-of-farming areas within each state, the correlation of these delineations across state lines, and the examination of all available agricultural statistics, and research data relating to these areas for the purpose of determining needed adjustments.

Although the results were not such as to inspire the administration to alter radically the nature of the adjustment programs, much of the flexibility in the 1936 and 1937 programs may be traced to this project. If, however, the project had contributed nothing directly to the subsequent adjustment

programs, it was well worth the effort from the standpoint of its wholesome influence on agricultural research. It represents the first systematic inventory or examination of the fruits of agricultural research and served as a test of the usefulness of these data for planning purposes. Most of us were appalled by the large and numerous gaps not only in our farm management research data, but also in that of all other fields of agricultural research.

This project also had a fine coordinating influence in that it brought together workers from many field of research and provided the opportunity and incentive to consider jointly research material from those different fields in relation to common objectives. Undoubtedly the scope of thought in the field of farm management research has been greatly extended, and the objectives broadened, due, in part at least, to the influence of this project.

One of the more immediate effects of this project on our research program in Texas was the setting up in the fall of 1935 of a continuing project in regional adjustment research on a state-wide basis. In this project, which provides for cooperation with the AAA, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the various subject matter divisions of the Experiment Station, we are attempting to develop a body of knowledge which will make a satisfactory foundation for agricultural planning. In other words, we are attempting to close the gaps in our knowledge of the agriculture of Texas. Under this project we have revised our type-of-farming analysis and have conducted detailed farm management studies in four different areas. We have also assisted various subject matter divisions of the Experiment Station in the preparation of certain data on the basis of type-of-farming areas. Although this project has permitted a more rapid accumulation of basic data by type-of-farming areas than formerly, the data obtained with respect to the first areas studied could be obsolete for planning purposes by the time all of our 37 areas had been covered in this project. Obviously, we must speed up our procedure if we are to contribute to any great extent to program planning through farm management research. We believe that this can be done only if agencies charged with the administration of action programs take an active interest in the development of basic data. There is no logical reason

why the AAA or the Soil Conservation Service, for example, should not in the regular course of administration provide a considerable portion of the data needed for agricultural planning. In the past too large a portion of our funds for farm management research have been used in obtaining descriptive data that might easily have been supplied by some administrative agency at very little additional cost.

Let us turn now to another project initiated by the Program Planning Division of the AAA and participated in by all of the states. I refer to the County Agricultural Planning Project which is being conducted under the supervision of the extension services of the various states. The project is now in its third year and has had a varied and interesting development. It was originally intended as a check on the recommendations of the research group and as an opportunity for farmers as a group to participate in the planning of their own business. It was hoped that there would be general agreement between the research and farmer groups as to needed adjustments and that such agreement would increase the ease of administration of subsequent programs.

Planning committees made up in Texas of the agricultural and home demonstration councils were set up in every county. These committees were asked to apply two questions to some 118 different items. The questions were as follows:

(1) "Estimate probable production of the various farm products in 1936 assuming normal weather conditions, present farming practices and prospective prices."

(2) "Estimate probable production of the farm products in 1936 assuming normal weather conditions and prospective prices, but without either production or marketing control, and if farming practices had been adjusted to maintain soil fertility and control erosion."

Typical items included acreages and production of all of the principal crops, numbers of different kinds of livestock, total land in farms, crop land, pasture land of various kinds, number of farms, and rural farm population.

A similar procedure was followed in 1937 with the following variations. The committees were asked to review question (2) and a third question was added. They were asked to "estimate probable production of farm products in the county after all land not adapted to agriculture has been shifted to other uses and after sufficient time has elapsed to

permit such changes in farm and woodland management practices as are necessary to maintain soil fertility and control soil erosion and to permit those shifts between agricultural enterprises which seem clearly desirable and susceptible of practical accomplishment." Other changes included a reduction in the number of items, and suggestions were offered and helps provided to facilitate the estimates. The committees were also asked to say how much of the adjustment indicated in the answers to question three should be attempted in 1938, what practices should be paid for under the 1938 program and at what rates of pay, and finally they were to designate the administrative machinery needed in the county.

The results of this project were perhaps even less satisfactory than were the results of the nation-wide Regional Adjustment Research Project. The questions and instructions were interpreted differently in different counties and other sources of confusion were apparent throughout the reports.

Despite these discouraging results, extension and research workers connected with the project recognized the possibilities in the project from the standpoint of broadening and making more effective both extension and research programs. They accepted failure as a challenge to develop a procedure which would give the desired results. They had learned from the first two years of the operation of the project that the trained personnel necessary to intelligent handling of the project was lacking in most counties. It was also evident that there was not sufficient trained personnel in the state office to give each county in the state the amount of technical help needed. It was also learned that farmers are not prepared to deal in abstractions such as were involved in the questions they were asked to consider.

They therefore suggested an alternative procedure to the Planning Division which would permit them to limit the counties involved to that number, some 10 or 12 perhaps, to which technical assistance could be given in order to insure a uniform procedure. This suggestion was accepted with certain reservations and the project entered the third year with a greatly altered procedure. The principal reservation had to do with the number of counties covered. The Program Planning Division, having in mind a state summary based on these county plans, insisted on the inclusion of at least one county in each type-of-farming area in which crop pro-

duction was important. The number finally agreed upon was 30 counties.

The procedure, although altered somewhat as new ideas evolved with the progress of the work, was essentially as follows:

(1) A map of the county was prepared showing the areas of distinct land use problems. For this purpose, soil maps, knowledge of farmers and county agents, and a trip over the county by the planning specialists were relied upon. Aerial maps were also used to advantage where available.

(2) The committees made up mainly of county and community agricultural conservation committeemen were asked to outline, for each of these areas, a plan for a farm unit which, in their opinion, constituted an "economic size" farm. In this connection the following assumptions were set up.

- (a) A family size farm with such hired help as is needed.
- (b) The farm would be operated with modern equipment and in such manner as to maintain soil fertility and control soil erosion.
- (c) The size of the farm and the organization of enterprises on the farm would be such as to provide a satisfactory standard of living for the operator.

The setting up of a plan for a farm unit is done to avoid the abstractions involved in dealing with total figures for an entire area or county.

(3) The plan for this unit includes recommendations as to general land use, an adapted crop and livestock system, and soil and moisture conservation practices which the committees feel are needed to preserve fertility and conserve the soil and moisture.

All of the pencil work is done by the specialists who prepare the reports for each county. The areas are measured and totals for each area are obtained by expanding the recommendations for the single farm unit to include the entire area. County totals are obtained from the area totals.

Another step in this procedure and one which has not yet been taken provides for community meetings in which the recommendations of the planning committee would be

explained and checked against the knowledge and experience of large numbers of farmers living within the area. This step, we feel, is important not only from the standpoint of maturing the plans but also from the standpoint of insuring an enlightened public action in the solution of adjustment problems.

The results being obtained with this procedure are encouraging. We have witnessed the attitude of farmers and extension workers toward the project change from one of indifference and perhaps antagonism in some cases to one of openly expressed and rapidly growing interest. We are not being misled into believing that the information obtained is of great direct value to the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. We do believe, however, that we have taken a long step forward in perfecting a planning procedure and that because of this year's experience we are now ready to take a much longer step.

The County Planning Project is brought into this discussion because of its relation to the Regional Adjustment Research Project and because it represents a real connecting link between research, extension, and action. To us it represents the best opportunity that has knocked at our door to combine research, extension, and action programs for a fuller realization of the possibilities in all of these activities. In working together in the County Planning Project, extension and research workers have learned that not only do they both want the same kinds of information, but that both want it for the same reasons. They have also learned that to have an effective procedure for planning, farmer judgment must be well seasoned by a liberal sprinkling of research data relating to the various problems being considered.

This, then, brings us to the consideration of a plan whereby research and extension may work hand in hand to multiply greatly the effectiveness of their efforts and at the same time provide a sound basis for the administration of action programs.

This plan calls for a combination of the objectives and procedures of the Regional Adjustment Research Project and of the County Planning Project described above and the pooling of personnel in farm management research, land use planning, and farm management extension. It would also require close cooperation with the AAA and perhaps with other action agencies. In general, the plan calls for:

1. A map of the county showing areas within which land use problems are highly similar.

2. A description of the present land use and related problems in each of these areas.

3. A body of basic data for use in evaluating the alternative uses of land.

4. Assisting farmer committees in deciding on the adjustments needed in size of farms, in crop and livestock systems, and in farm practice to overcome physical problems of production.

5. Assisting farmer committees in deciding on the relation of local economic and social institutions to these problems of adjustment.

6. Assist farmer committees in deciding on courses of action and in designating agencies best equipped to assist local people in the solution of these problems.

More specifically, the map showing the land use areas would be super-imposed upon a mosaic of the county aerial maps. AAA records relating to individual farms would be identified with respect to location on the map. These records would then be sorted into groups representing these land use areas and tabulated to provide a description of present land use, livestock organization, size of farms, etc. for each area.

In order to facilitate this part of the procedure the AAA would modify work sheets or compliance records to include information on livestock organization. On participating farms, boundaries of farms and of crop land on farms would be identified to permit measurement from aerial maps and the acreages of major crops would be shown. On non-participating farms, boundaries of farms and of crop land on farms would be identified to permit measurement. By so doing, the AAA would make available the data from which a complete census of land in farms and of crop land could be taken. Data from the records of participating farms would permit accurate estimates of total acreages in different crops and of livestock numbers.

Special surveys would be made in each land use area to obtain the basic data needed for the evaluation of the alternative uses of land. After these various data had been obtained and analyzed, the work with the committees, which would differ very little from the present procedure, would begin.

It is roughly estimated that we shall have approximately

twelve well-trained men who could devote practically their entire time to this project. Assuming that the equivalent of the time of one man for three months would be required to complete the work in one county, we could cover approximately 50 counties per year. At this rate the State could be covered intensively in approximately five years. It might be possible to reduce this time by limiting the work in certain counties to the descriptive phases and by referring these counties to the analysis of similar land use problems in adjoining counties within the same general type of farming area. We feel, however, that intensive work should be done in perhaps 100 or more of our 254 counties in order to provide for sufficient repetition of analyses of similar situations to lend stability to the conclusions.

While we are enthusiastic about the possibilities in county planning from the standpoint of research and extension, we are not overly optimistic as to the influence it may have on the action programs of the AAA. Despite all of the work that has been done in the name of regional adjustment research and county planning, the more recent programs are apparently influenced more by political expediency than by principles of good land use. We also see in the latest program forces at work which, if continued, will greatly discourage and retard the development of county planning. I refer to the arbitrary manner of assigning individual quotas and the resulting antagonisms being created among groups of farmers. If it is the desire of the administration to improve the economic conditions of disadvantaged groups in agriculture, some method of doing this should be devised which will not work contrary to good land use.

Despite these disturbing developments in the action programs, we believe that the county planning approach offers the best possibility for the development of an enlightened public attitude toward agricultural adjustments.

## NOTES FROM THE SOUTHWEST

*Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association*—The annual meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association was held in Oklahoma City, April 15 and 16. The attendance was the largest in the history of the Association. Registration totaled 267. The membership in the Association has also reached the highest figure ever recorded. Practically all of those whose names appeared on the printed program read papers at the meeting. The program as actually rendered appears elsewhere in this issue. The Executive Committee has decided to hold the 1939 meeting in Dallas.

The *Fourth Annual Southern Social Science Research Conference* was held in New Orleans, March 10-12. About fifty persons from twelve states in the southern region attended the meeting along with representatives of the Social Science Research Council.

### ARKANSAS

*University of Arkansas*—Mr. Richard B. Johnson has been appointed instructor in the College of Business Administration. He was formerly connected with the American National Insurance Company at Galveston, Texas, and is approaching completion of his Ph.D. work at the University of Texas.

Dr. Robert N. Tarkington, instructor in Business Education in New York University, has been appointed instructor in Business Education for the summer session. Dr. Tarkington was formerly in charge of Accounting and Business Education courses at Northeast Oklahoma State Teachers College.

Mr. Herman H. Hankins, formerly Assistant Supervisor of Rural Research for the Works Progress Administration, has been appointed Assistant State Land Planning Specialist for the Farm Security Administration.

The College of Business Administration has been designated as the co-ordinating agency for George-Deen vocational training in the distributive trades. Doctor P. C. Kelley, Professor of Marketing, has been appointed State Co-ordinator.

The College of Business Administration has joined with the Arkansas Bankers Association in planning an annual summer conference to be held at the University.

Dean C. C. Fichtner has been re-elected Secretary-Treasurer of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business for the coming year.

Professor D. Y. Thomas has written on the topic of "Arkansas" for the annual supplement of the *Encyclopedia Britannica* and also two or three articles for the *Dictionary of American History*.

Professor Dorsey D. Jones has had two articles to appear recently. They are "Mustapha Kemal and Peter the Great: A Study in Parallelism", found in the January 1938 issue of *Sociology and Social Research*, and "Modern Spanish Troubles" in the January 1938 issue of *Social Science*.

Professor W. C. Askew is to travel through central Europe this summer and will do some research in the Italian Archives.

Professor Austin Venable is doing further research on William Yancey.

Mr. Ward Morton, of the Department of Political Science, will give instruction in that subject at the University of Texas during the second summer session. He is writing the results of his research on the "Mexican Federal System."

#### LOUISIANA

*Louisiana State University*—Professor Walter Prichard, editor of the *Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, has been recently awarded the Palmes Académiques (Officier d'Académie) by the French ministry of education in recognition of his work in Louisiana history.

D. Appleton-Century Co. is about to publish a *Short History of the Ancient World* under the joint authorship of Professor C. E. Smith of the History Department and Professor P. G. Morehead of the Classical Language Department.

The Louisiana State University Press is undertaking jointly with the University of Texas Press, with the aid of the Littlefield Fund of the latter institution, the publication of a ten-volume coöperative *History of the South, 1607-1940*. Professor Wendell H. Stephenson of the Louisiana State University and Professor Charles W. Ramsdell of the University of Texas will serve as editors.

Dr. Lynn M. Case of the Rice Institute has been appointed Assistant Professor in charge of European history.

The manuscript collections recently acquired by the Department of Archives total about 10,000 items from 1750 to 1937 and include particularly materials on plantations, business, and education.

Mr. Joseph A. Todd has resigned his position as fellow in Government and instructor in the Lower Division of Louisiana State University to accept a position of Junior Field Examiner with the Mississippi State Employment Service.

A non-service fellowship, paying \$450 per year and exempting from university fees, to be known as the Roderick Lewis Carleton Fellowship in Government, has been created.

Mr. Ralph Jones, who has previously divided his time between the Mississippi Press Association and an instructorship in Millsaps College, has since the beginning of the second semester of 1937-1938 served as full-time instructor.

Recent lectures on public affairs have included a series of three lectures delivered in March on the subject, "The Mineral Factor in the Modern World", by Mr. Walter Voskuil of the Illinois Geological Survey; "The Pattern of Dictatorship in Latin America" by W. W. Pierson, Dean of the Graduate School of the University of North Carolina; "The Contemporary Situation in the Far East" by Mr. Claude A. Bus, formerly of the American Consulate in China, and now Professor of International Relations at the University of Southern California; and the Edward Douglas White lectures, this year given by Mr. Herman Finer of the London School of Economics, "The State in the Twentieth Century."

Professor Rudolph Heberle of the University of Kiel (Germany) has been appointed Professor of Sociology for the coming year.

Professor Guy B. Johnson of the University of North Carolina will be visiting Professor of Sociology during the summer school session.

Professor T. Lynn Smith of the Sociology Department published a study on *The Population of Louisiana: Its Composition and Changes* as *Louisiana Bulletin* No. 293.

The U. S. Department of Agriculture is publishing in April, 1938 a study of *Social Status and Farm Tenure* by Professor E. A. Schuler of the Sociology Department.

Professor Schuler has recently been awarded a Social

Science Research Council grant-in-aid to assist him in a study of social correlatives of land tenure.

A Research Institute in Southern Population Problems has been established as a division of the Department of Sociology.

Professor E. A. Saliers of the School of Commerce has just had published by the Ronald Press a study entitled *How to Keep Accounts and Prepare Statements*.

The Department of Psychology has recently organized a State Mental Hygiene Society.

#### MISSOURI

*Northwest Missouri State Teachers College*—Perhaps the most active sociologist in our state is Dr. O. Myking Mehus of the Northwest State Teachers College at Maryville. He is connected with too many local, state, and national, and even international movements and good causes for them to be listed here. Some of his chief activities for one month in March and April will serve as a sample of his sociological and welfare endeavors. On March 22 he took twenty of his students to the Des Moines regional conference of the International Relations Clubs. The following week he had charge of the annual High School Day at Maryville and guided some 1500 high school seniors in acquiring a better understanding of the values of higher education. On April 15 he spoke over WDAF (Kansas City Star radio station) on "Youth and World Peace." April 21 he addressed the Assembly of Christian College (for girls) at Columbia on "The Conditions of Peace;" and on April 22 he reported to the State Welfare Conference, meeting at Columbia, as Chairman of their Committee on Publicity. He has a regular periodical publicity service for Missouri papers publicising the work of this Conference and other good causes in the state and drafts any and all willing helpers in preparing material for this purpose.

*Washington University*—February 20, L. L. Bernard of Washington University, St. Louis, was the annual out of town speaker in the Northwest Missouri Teachers College series of research addresses for this year. His subject was: "Early Utopian Social Theory in the United States, 1840-1860".

Professor L. L. Bernard of Washington University is scheduled to teach three courses in Sociology in the Summer School of the University of Oregon at Portland, June 20 to July 29, 1938. His courses will be Cultural Anthropology, Social Psychology, and Educational Sociology.

The Washington University's Department of Sociology (Seminar on American Sociology) has been given one of the sessions of the Sociological Section of the Missouri Academy of Science, meeting at Rolla, April 21-23, for the purpose of putting on a Research Team in Sociology.

#### OKLAHOMA

*University of Oklahoma*—Professor E. E. Dale, Head of the Department of History, will teach at the University of Nebraska this summer.

*Southern Plainsmen*, by Dr. Carl C. Rister, Professor of History, will be released by the University of Oklahoma Press in August.

Dr. Ralph H. Records, Associate Professor of History, will return from leave of absence in June.

The School of Citizenship sponsored a Conference on Local Government at the University, March 8 and 9. Out-of-state speakers were Dr. Lane W. Lancaster, Professor of Political Science, University of Nebraska, and Mr. Kenneth Warner, Director of Personnel, State of Arkansas.

Professor French S. E. Amos, Assistant Professor of Government, has been granted a year's leave of absence effective in June. Dr. Fritz Ermarth will take his place.

Dr. A. B. Adams, Dean of the College of Business Administration, attended the meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business at Urbana, Illinois, April 21 to 23.

Professor C. J. Bollinger, Associate Professor of Geography, will conduct a ten day field trip in Oklahoma following the 1938 summer session. The itinerary of the party will include the Arbuckles, the Ouachitas, the Ozarks, the lead and zinc district, the northeastern prairies, the hard winter wheat belt, the Gypsum Hills, and the High Plains, including Black Mesa.

Professor Allen Belden, Instructor in Geography, will teach in the University of Missouri summer session of 1938.

The Oklahoma Institute of International Relations, under the direction of Cortez A. M. Ewing, Director of the School of Citizenship, will meet at the University from June 9th to 18th.

Dr. Royden J. Dangerfield, Professor of Government, has been appointed Assistant Dean of the Graduate School.

**NINETEENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE SOUTHWESTERN  
SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION**

The nineteenth annual meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association was held in the Skirvin Hotel, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April 15 and 16, 1938. The program, corrected as far as possible, was as follows:

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 7:30 A. M.**

**Accounting Section**

**Parlor G**

Breakfast Session, Joint meeting of Accounting Section with Oklahoma Society of Certified Public Accountants.

Chairman: Ross T. Warner, Tulsa, Oklahoma (Breakfast, \$ .75).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**Accounting Section**

**Room 1003**

Presiding: E. A. Saliers, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana.  
Business Session.

Chairman: A. W. Johnson, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

Round Table: *First Year Accounting: Teaching Methods and Objectives.*

J. M. Hargrove, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

Verne F. Simons, Rice Institute, Houston, Texas.

W. B. Cole, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**Agricultural Economics Section**

**Japanese Room**

Chairman: C. A. Wiley, University of Texas.

First Paper: 9:00-10:00

*Landlord-Tenant Relationships in the Southwest*, Dr. Peter Nelson,  
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College (Fifty minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

Second Paper: 10:00-11:00

*Soil Conservation Districts Law and Its Operation in Oklahoma*,  
Dean L. S. Ellis, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.  
(Fifty minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

Third Paper: 11:00-12:00

*Problems of Rural Electrification*, Dr. H. W. Blalock, Commissioner,  
Department of Public Utilities, State of Arkansas (Fifty minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**Business Administration Section**

**Room 1004**

Chairman: Pearce C. Kelley, University of Arkansas.

*The Possible Effects of Social Security Taxes upon Business*, T. C. Root,  
Texas Technological College.

*Some Needed Changes in the Social Security Act*, A. S. Lang, Texas State  
College for Women.

Discussion: John R. Stockton, University of Texas; Richard B. Johnson, University of Arkansas; I. J. Sollenberger, University of Oklahoma.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**Economics Section**

Room 1005

9:00-10:00

Chairman: Dr. Karl Ashburn, Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas.  
*Wages and Hours*

Dr. Frederick L. Ryan, National Labor Relations Board (Thirty minutes).

Professor Vernon C. Hughes, Professor of Economics, East Texas State Teachers College (Fifteen minutes).

Round Table Discussion (Ten minutes).

10:00-11:00

Chairman: Dr. Karl Ashburn, Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas.  
*The Economics of the Homestead Exemption Law*

Dr. T. N. Farris, Professor of Economics, Louisiana State University, (With special reference to Louisiana) (Twenty-five minutes).

Dean Raymond D. Thomas, Dean, School of Commerce, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College. (Twenty-five minutes).

General Round Table Discussion (Ten minutes).

11:00-12:00

Chairman: Dr. Karl Ashburn, Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas.  
*Federal Regulation of Railway Constructions and Abandonments*

Professor R. E. Westmeyer, Rice Institute, Houston, Texas (Twenty-five minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

Business Meeting (Ten minutes).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**Government Section**

Parlor G

Presiding Officer: Waldo E. Waltz, University of Arizona.

*Should State Legislatures Permit Administrative Officers to Exercise Greater Discretionary Powers?* Raymond D. Thomas, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, and former member of the Oklahoma State Tax Commission.

*Legislators versus Administrators as Lawmakers*, Charles S. Hyneman, Louisiana State University.

*The Adequacy of the State Legislature as a Policy-Forming Body*, A. P. Cagle, Baylor University, and the Texas Legislature.

*Delegation of Power to Administrative Agencies in Texas*, Joe M. Ray, North Texas State Teachers College.

Discussion Leaders: Clarence N. Roberts, Hannibal-LaGrange College; William H. Edwards, New Mexico State College; Montell Ogden, Texas Technological College; Harvey McCaleb, Cameron State Agricultural College.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.**

**History Section**

Crystal Room

Chairman: Spencer D. Albright, Jr., University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

Program: Miscellaneous Topic.

*The Casablanca Affair*, W. C. Askew, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas (Twenty minutes).

*Mexican Silver and Napoleon*, John Rydjord, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas. (Twenty minutes).

*Post-War Spanish Agrarian Reform*, V. Alton Moody, Iowa State, Ames, Iowa, (Twenty minutes).

*The Chickasaw Threat to French Control of the Mississippi in the 1740's*, Norman Caldwell, College of the Ozarks, Clarksville, Arkansas, (Twenty minutes).

*John T. Morgan, Father of the Isthmian Canal*, Austin L. Venable, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas, (Twenty minutes).

#### FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.

##### Human Geography Section

Room 1006

Chairman: Meredith F. Burrill, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

*Indian Land as a Factor in the Human Geography of the Cherokee Country*, Leslie Hewes, Oklahoma University.

*The Matanuska Valley*, Willie M. Floyd, Abilene High School.

*El Pacayal: A Coffee Plantation in Guatemala*, Sam T. Bratton, University of Missouri.

#### FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 9:00 A. M.

##### Sociology Section

Empire Room

9:00

Chairman: W. E. Gettys, University of Texas.

*A Survey of Missouri Almshouses*, C. Terence Pihlblad, University of Missouri.

*The Educational Success of High School Students Whose Parents Have Been Permanent Relief Clients*, Albert E. Croft, Wichita Municipal University.

*The Relation of Dramatic Art to Sociology*, Cleo E. Wilcox, University of Kansas.

10:30

Chairman: O. D. Duncan, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

*Social Background of Oklahoma Offenders*, J. J. Rhyne, University of Oklahoma.

*The Newspaper and the Technique of Crime*, Fred W. Calvert, Central Missouri State Teachers College.

*The Classification and Segregation Program of the Texas Prison System*, Carl Basland, Director of Classification Bureau, Texas Prison System.

#### FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 12:15 P. M.

##### General Luncheon

Rose Room

Chairman: Vernon G. Sorrell, University of New Mexico.

*With Ten Million Dollars*, C. E. Ayres, Professor of Economics, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

#### FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.

##### Accounting Section

Room 1003

Chairman: W. B. Cole, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.

*Legal Responsibilities of Public Accountants*, W. D. Rich, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Discussion: Daniel Borth, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana. *Governmental-Commercial Accounting*, M. G. Dakin, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana.

Discussion: W. K. Newton, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. *Oil Industry Accounting*, L. H. Fleck, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

Discussion: Dwight Williams, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. *Favoritisms Under the Federal Income Tax*, Chester F. Lay, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

Discussion: D. L. Barnes, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Agricultural Economics Section**

Japanese Room

Chairman: O. R. Johnson, University of Missouri.

First Paper: 2:00-3:00

*The Place of Farm Management Investigations in a General Program of Land Use Planning*, Mr. R. S. Kifer, Agricultural Economist, Bureau of Agricultural Economics (Fifty minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

Second Paper: 3:00-4:00

*Farm Management and Agricultural Adjustment in the Southwest*, C. A. Bonnen, Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College (Fifty minutes).

Discussion: (Ten minutes).

Third Paper: 4:00-5:00

*Farm Credit Administration Loans and Loan Experiences in the Southwest*, Dr. P. H. Stevens, Farm Credit Administration, Wichita, Kansas (Fifty minutes).

Discussion (Ten minutes).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Joint Session of Business Administration and Economics**

Crystal Room

Chairman: Frank K. Rader, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas. *The Trend of Big Business*, Dr. John O. Gragg, Texas School of Mines, El Paso, Texas (Twenty-five minutes).

Discussion: Dr. Robert Conrod, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas, (Ten minutes).

Discussion: Professor C. E. Ayres, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, (Ten minutes).

Discussion: (Fifteen minutes).

*Freshmen and the Social Sciences*, Professor L. B. Lucky, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana (Twenty-five minutes).

Discussion: (Fifteen minutes).

*A Bureau of Business Research as an Asset to the Study of Economics and Business Administration*, Dr. Findley Weaver, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma (Twenty minutes).

Discussion: Dr. Daniel Borth, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana, (Ten minutes).

Open Discussion (Ten minutes).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Government Section**

Parlor G

Presiding Officer: Nolan Fortenberry, North Texas State Teachers College.  
*Planning for Administrative Reorganization in Kansas*, Edwin O. Stene, University of Kansas.

*State Planning after Five Years*, Henry E. Hudson, Arkansas Polytechnic College.

*Essentials of a New State Constitution*, Claude V. Hall, East Texas State Teachers College.

Discussion leaders: Cortez A. M. Ewing, University of Oklahoma; Hugo Wall, University of Wichita; C. W. Patton, Oklahoma Baptist University; W. A. Stephenson, Hardin-Simmons College.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:15 P. M.**

**History Section**

Room 1004

Chairman: Glenn H. Benton, Drury College, Springfield, Missouri.

Program: Russia.

*French Opinions on the Crimean War*, Lynn M. Case, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana (Twenty minutes).

*The U. S. S. R.: France's Dilemma*, John B. Wolf, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri (Twenty-five minutes).

*Lex Kallio (The Great Land Reform Law of Finland)*, Jeston Hampton, Central State Teachers College, Edmond, Oklahoma (Twenty-five minutes).

*Social Sciences in the Soviet Union*, S. R. Tompkins, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma (Twenty minutes).

*Trotskyism in the Light of the Bolshevik Past*, Joseph S. Werlin, University of Houston, Houston, Texas (Twenty minutes).

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Human Geography Section**

Room 1006

*Crop Yields as a Measurement of Environment*, Clyde J. Bollinger, Oklahoma University.

*Some Aspects of the Military Geography of the Mediterranean*, Russell W. Lynch, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

*Devices Useful to Professional Geographers*, Meredith F. Burrill, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

*Through the Northwest with a Movie Camera*, Edwin J. Foscoe, Southern Methodist University.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Psychology Section**

Room 1005

Chairman: Joseph U. Yarborough, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

Organization Meeting.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Sociology Section**

Empire Room

Chairman: W. H. Metzler, University of Arkansas.

*An Index of Dependency*, Irving Weisman, Director of Social Research for the Social Planning Council, St. Louis, Missouri.

*The Development of the County Welfare Unit*, W. H. McCullough, Statistician for the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare.

*The Development of the Public Assistance Program in Kansas*, Roy L. Roberts, Research Division, Kansas Department of Social Welfare.

3:30

Chairman: W. P. Meroney, Baylor University.

*Types of Resettlement Projects*, T. Roy Reid, Regional Director of the Resettlement Administration for Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana.

*Mobility of Population in Austin, Texas*, Henry Sheldon, University of Texas.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 2:00 P. M.**

**Sociology Student Group**

Rose Room

Chairman: David G. Steinicke, Fellow in Sociology, Southern Methodist University.

*The Development of Leadership in C. C. C. Camps*, Ralph L. Hukill, Graduate Assistant in Sociology, The University of Kansas.

*The Public Assistance Recipient in Harmon County, Oklahoma*, Zelma Curnutt, Graduate Student, University of Oklahoma.

*The Urban Beer Tavern*, H. B. Simmons, Student, Southern Methodist University.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 6:00 P. M.**

Dinner meeting of teachers of sociology in teachers colleges, Parlor G

Chairman: Alvin Good, Louisiana State Normal College.

Topic: The Process of Socialization Accompanying the Activities of the Curriculum in Public Schools.

Papers by Carl W. Strow, East Central State Teachers College, Ada, Oklahoma; J. K. Johnson, East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas; W. O. Cralle, State Teachers College, Springfield, Missouri.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 7:30 P. M.**

**Sociology Student Group**

Room 1003

Chairman: David G. Steinicke, Southern Methodist University.

*The Role of Concepts in Research*, C. Wright Mills, Graduate Assistant in Sociology, University of Texas.

Business Meeting.

**FRIDAY, APRIL 15, 8:00 P. M.**

**General Meeting**

Crystal Room

Chairman: Professor C. O. Brannen, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.

Address: Dean James B. Trant, President, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana.

Address: President W. B. Bizzell, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Joint Session of Accounting and Business Administration Sections**  
Willson Room

Chairman: L. H. Fleck, Southern Methodist University.

**Accounting and Management**

*The Manager's Use of Reports*, K. D. Reyer, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana.

*Accounting as an Aid to Management*, Robert W. Field, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

**Accounting and Finance**

*Prospectuses—Form and Arrangement*, Harold H. Neff, Director of Division of Forms and Regulations, Securities and Exchange Commission, Washington, D. C.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Joint Session of Agricultural Economics and General Economics**  
Crystal Room

Chairman: O. R. Johnson, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

*The National Debt and Welfare Program*, Professor I. J. Sollenberger, University of Oklahoma (Twenty-five minutes).

Discussion: (Five minutes).

*The Economics of Southern Agricultural Labor*, Dr. R. J. Saville, Louisiana State University, University, Louisiana (Thirty minutes).

Discussion: (Ten minutes).

*The Demand for Cotton*, Dr. O. C. Stine, Chief, Division of Statistical and Historical Research, Bureau of Agricultural Economics (Fifty minutes).

Discussion: (Fifteen minutes).

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Government Section** Room 1003

Presiding Officer: V. Don Hudson, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College.

*League Technique versus Conference Technique in the Settlement of International Disputes*, O. E. Benson, University of Oklahoma.

*The Foreign Policy of the Roosevelt Administration*, David Y. Thomas, University of Arkansas.

*International Aspects of the Currency Problem*, Leon G. Halden, The University of Houston.

*Resettlement Problems of the Southwest*, John H. Caufield, Regional Information Adviser, Farm Security Administration, Dallas, Texas.

Discussion Leaders: Willmoore Kendall, Louisiana State University; L. C. Riethmayer, University of Texas; G. W. McGinty, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**History Section** Parlor G

Chairman: Donald H. Nicholson, Southwest Missouri State Teachers College, Springfield, Missouri.

Program: The American Frontier.

*The Merchant Sutler*, Lewis E. Atherton, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri (Twenty minutes).

*Manufacturing on the Frontier*, Theodore Paullin, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas (Twenty minutes).

*Foreigners and Foreign Capital in the Range Cattle Industry*, Edward E. Dale, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma (Twenty minutes).

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Human Geography Section**

Room 1006

Chairman: Meredith F. Burrill, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

*Traverse City, Michigan*, Allen Belden, Oklahoma University.

*Settlement Forms in the Red Clay Belt in Eastern Wisconsin*, Kenneth R. Bertrand, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

*Representative Village Trading Centers in the Illinois Corn Belt*, C. B. Odell, Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College.

Round Table: *The Field and Function of Geography*.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Psychology Section**

Room 1005

Panel Discussion: *Our Second Semester Course in Psychology*, L. B. Hoisington, University of Oklahoma; William H. Makesell, University of Wichita.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 8:00 A. M.**

**Sociology Section**

Empire Room

Chairman: Carroll D. Clark, University of Kansas.

Business Meeting.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 9:00 A. M.**

**Sociology Section**

Empire Room

Chairman: J. K. Johnson, East Texas State Teachers College.

*The Synarchial Family*, Fred G. Watts, Oklahoma Baptist University.

*Growth of Race Consciousness Among American Negroes*, T. G. Standing, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 10:30 A. M.**

**Sociology Section**

Empire Room

Chairman: Carl M. Rosenquist, University of Texas.

*The Succession of Forms in the Evolution of Social Controls*, L. L. Bernard, Washington University.

*The Need for Functional Social Sciences*, Carl W. Strow, East Central State Teachers College.

**SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 12:15 P. M.**

Luncheon: Business Session of the Association.

Empire Room

Chairman: James B. Trant, Louisiana State University.

Resolutions and Other Business.  
Election of Officers.

#### SATURDAY, APRIL 16

At Close of Business Luncheon Session

Executive Council Meeting.

#### SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 12:15 P. M.

Luncheon: Business Session of the Association      Empire Room

The nineteenth annual business luncheon and meeting was attended by about seventy-five members. President James B. Trant presided at the session until the new president was elected. The usual order of business was as follows: minutes of the Eighteenth Annual Business Meeting were read and were approved as read: the Secretary-Treasurer reported on the membership and the finances of the Association; reports were heard from the Board of Editors, Auditing Committee, the President, the Committee on Resolutions, and the Committee on Nominations. These reports were as follows:

#### REPORT ON MEMBERSHIP

Note: By action of the Sixteenth Annual Convention, the Secretary-Treasurer was authorized to drop those who have been carried on his books for longer than one quarter in arrears and to elevate delinquent members to good standing if they pay the subscription for the past year due and one year in advance.

#### —I—

	April, 1936	April, 1937	April, 1938
Life .....	1	1	1
Contributing .....	5	4	3
Sustaining .....	2	1	1
Institutional .....			6
Active			
1. Individuals (in good standing) ..	191	171	198
2. Individuals (in arrears) .....	36	34	50
3. Libraries (in good standing) ....	114	119	133
4. Libraries (in arrears) .....	10	6	10
<b>TOTALS</b> .....	<b>359</b>	<b>336</b>	<b>402</b>

#### —II—

1. Individuals dropped since April 1, 1937 .....	83
2. Libraries dropped since April 1, 1937 .....	6
3. New individuals added since April 1, 1937 .....	80
4. New libraries added since April 1, 1937 .....	15

## —III—

An attempted distribution of individual membership (good standing)  
according to sections:

Accounting .....	14
Agricultural Economics .....	7
Business Administration .....	26
Economics .....	30
Government .....	26
History .....	24
Human Geography .....	8
Psychology .....	1
Sociology .....	16
Miscellaneous and those not designating sections .....	46

TOTAL ..... 198

FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR THE EIGHTEENTH FISCAL PERIOD  
February 1, 1937 to January 31, 1938

Note: By action of the Fifteenth Annual Convention, the Secretary-Treasurer was ordered to close his books as of January 31.

## RECEIPTS:

Balance, February 1, 1937 .....	\$ 73.81
Membership Dues:	
Active .....	955.95
Contributing .....	10.00
Sustaining .....	5.00
Institutional .....	25.00
Sale of Publication .....	42.25
Refund from Convention Expenses .....	10.00

## DISBURSEMENTS:

Transcript-Enterprise Publishing Co.:	
Printing of March, 1937, Quarterly .....	\$ 177.48
Printing of June, 1937, Quarterly .....	240.72
Printing of September, 1937, Quarterly .....	187.68
Printing of December, 1937, Quarterly .....	199.92
Stamps and Supplies (Stenographic Bureau) .....	41.96
Convention Expenses .....	40.00
Printing of Programs, 1937 (The Pender Co.) .....	45.55
Clerical Help .....	28.67
Returned Check .....	3.00
Additional Mailing Costs .....	3.68
Executive Meeting in Dallas .....	16.00
Express on Reserve Quarterlies, Norman to Austin .....	19.90
Printing of the Constitution (Transcript- Enterprise Company) .....	15.96
Balance on Hand January 31, 1938 .....	101.49
	<hr/>
	\$1,122.01
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	\$1,122.01

## REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

To Dean James B. Trant, President  
The Southwestern Social Science Association:

Pursuant to appointment as a committee to audit the financial records of the Southwestern Social Science Association, we have audited such records and report thereon as follows.

All receipts and disbursements have been substantiated by satisfactory vouchers and other evidences of the transactions recorded. We certify that the Statement of Receipts and Disbursements for the fiscal year ended January 31, 1938, is correct. Further, we examined the records of receipts and disbursements for the period February 1, 1938, to April 13, 1938, and have found them to be correct.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed)

WILEY D. RICH

LAURENCE H. FLECK, C. P. A.

## REPORT OF THE BOARD OF EDITORS

Dr. J. J. Rhyne, Editor-in-Chief, analyzed the contents of Volume XVIII of the *Quarterly*. He gave the total number of articles published in the volume as thirty-two and presented a detailed distribution of these articles on the basis of specialism, states, type of institution, and the type of material. Publication costs and editorial policy and problems were commented upon.

## REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

President James B. Trant expressed to the entire Association his thanks and appreciation for the fine manner in which it had cooperated and worked with him during the past year. Special praise was extended to the officers, the Executive Council, the Committee of Local Arrangements, and the Section Chairmen for their efforts to increase the membership of the Association and for the preparation of the Annual Program.

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

To President James B. Trant:

## BE IT RESOLVED:

That the Southwestern Social Science Association thanks the Skirvin Hotel for its courtesies and attention to the needs of the Association and individual members.

That special recognition and thanks be extended to the Committee on Arrangements for its outstanding service to the Association.

These resolutions shall be made a part of the minutes of the Association and the Secretary shall inform the Hotel and the Committee of this action taken by the Association.

## RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

(Signed)

J. T. WALLER

FINDLEY WEAVER

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

To President James B. Trant:

The members of the nominating committee in attendance at this, the 19th annual meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association: William C. Askew, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas; Meredith F. Burrill, Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Alvin Good, Louisiana State Normal, Natchitoches, Louisiana; A. W. Johnson, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma; A. S. Lang, Texas State College for Women, Denton, Texas; Vernon G. Sorrell, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico; W. L. Bradshaw, Chairman, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, unanimously recommend as elective officials for 1938-39 the following: President, Professor C. O. Brannen, University of Arkansas, member of the Agricultural Economics Section; First Vice President, Professor W. E. Gettys, University of Texas, member of the Sociology Section; Second Vice President, Dean Raymond D. Thomas, School of Commerce, Oklahoma A. & M. College, member of Economics Section.

(Signed) Wm. L. Bradshaw, Chairman

This report was accepted by those present, and President Trant declared the foregoing nominees duly elected.

MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS

The respective sections having chosen their officers for the ensuing year, these individuals were introduced as follows:

*Section Chairmen:*

Accounting: W. K. Newton, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma  
 Agricultural Economics: Peter Nelson, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma  
 Business Administration: Karl D. Reyer, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana  
 Economics: Robert Conrod, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas  
 Government: Edwin O. Stene, Kansas University, Lawrence, Kansas  
 History: John Rydjord, University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas  
 Human Geography: Allen Belden, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma  
 Psychology: Joseph U. Yarborough, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas  
 Sociology: W. E. Gettys, University of Texas, Austin, Texas

*Associate Editors:*

Accounting: E. A. Saliers, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana  
 Agricultural Economics: Harold C. Bradshaw, Texas A. & M. College, College Station, Texas  
 Business Administration: Aldon S. Lang, Texas State College for Women, Denton, Texas

Economics: George Hunsberger, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas

Government: John H. Leek, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma

History: Lynn M. Case, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Human Geography: Allen Belden, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma

Psychology: Joseph U. Yarborough, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas

Sociology: Carl M. Rosenquist, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

There being no further business, President C. A. Brannen declared the nineteenth annual business meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association adjourned.

After the business meeting had adjourned, the Executive Council met to consider matters concerning the policy of the Association. This council named Dr. J. J. Rhyne Editor-in-Chief of the *Quarterly*. The resignation of Dr. Stuart A. MacCorkle as Secretary-Treasurer was accepted and Professor Daniel Borth, College of Commerce, Louisiana State University, was appointed to the position.

The Council voted that the next annual meeting of the Association should be held in Dallas during the Easter holidays.

STUART A. MACCORKLE  
Retiring Secretary-Treasurer

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY O. DOUGLAS WEEKS

*The University of Texas*

*Farmers on Relief and Rehabilitation*, by Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research. (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1937. pp. xx 226.)

This study comprises an analysis of the social and economic characteristics of farm operators and farm laborers receiving assistance under the general relief and rural rehabilitation programs. The first portion contains an analysis of the extent and causes of farm distress, emphasizing both the short and long-run factors in the latter. Also the location of farm relief and rehabilitation cases is given some attention with considerable emphasis upon the character of the areas in which the distress was located.

A particularly interesting feature of the work is that portion which calls attention to the fact that more than fifty per cent of the farm relief and rural rehabilitation cases were located in fourteen states of the union which contain only about one-fourth of the total number of farms in the nation. These fourteen states form four rather definite regions, in each of which exist certain economic factors contributing to farm distress, which, in the main, were external to the industry or enterprise of the particular farmers involved. For example, the largest area affected by such factors was in the far Middlewest. Conditions of drought had reduced a great number of farmers to such circumstances that it was necessary to appeal to some governmental agency for relief. The second main area comprised the region around the Great Lakes area, especially in Minnesota, where the depletion of timber reserves had eliminated practically all opportunity for supplementary employment. The result was that the small-scale farmers who had depended in former years upon a supplementary income from non-agricultural employment were now forced upon relief. The third major relief area was in the lower Appalachian area, usually referred to as the Appalachian-Ozark region. The conditions prevailing in this area were very similar to those prevailing in the area centering in Minnesota—that is, the small-scale farmers in the region had been deprived of an opportunity to obtain part-time employment in industry as a means of supplementing their meager agricultural incomes. However, in addition to this factor, there were problems growing out of inadequate land resources in relation to the population and also that of low incomes from the tillage of small farms in poor land areas. The fourth major relief area was composed of the ten cotton states of the South where can be found large numbers of agricultural laborers and share-croppers. Many families belonging to these two groups have suffered even in good times from low levels of income, but who were especially hard hit under the circumstances attending the depression, and because of the cotton curtailment program of the AAA. The retirement of much land from cotton cultivation had separated many former share-croppers from the soil, and in the absence of opportunity for employment in non-agricultural pursuits, the only alternative was some sort of relief subsidy.

In the early stages of the relief program, rural relief cases were cared for by the FERA in the same manner that were distressed families in non-agricultural occupations. For the most part, distressed families, both urban and rural, were given direct relief grants. However, there was a very strong feeling against the so-called "dole" system, and for this reason, provision was made as early as possible whereby all families on relief could be offered an opportunity to work in return for the relief grants which they received. Those not classified as farm operators by usual occupations were provided work, first through the CWA and later through the PWA or other alphabets which could provide employment. However, in every area there were a number of families who had no employable member in the household which usually throughout the period received direct relief grants. Furthermore, because of the difficulty of finding employment in rural areas for needy farm families and because of the self-perpetuating character of direct relief grants, early in the spring of 1934 most all farm operator families on relief who gave evidence of ability to provide their own subsistence if only they were given adequate assistance in obtaining possession of land, teams, tools, and equipment, were segregated into a special type of relief case. Such families were to be "rehabilitated" by restoring them to their usual occupation upon the land. They were therefore to be known as rural rehabilitation cases. Because of the nature of their needs, the major portion of such cases logically was to be found in the South where propertyless share-croppers existed in such great numbers. There was also a large number of relief cases in the rehabilitation class in the drought stricken area of the Middlewest and the Southwest. By executive order the handling of drought relief cases was to be the responsibility of the Rural Rehabilitation Division.

At any given time the number of rural relief cases was approximately one million, although at some time or another approximately two million rural families sought relief either in the form of direct grants or loans for rural rehabilitation. The number at any one time upon the rural rehabilitation rolls ranged from around three hundred thousand to five hundred thousand cases.

A large part of the middle section of the study is devoted to an analysis of the amount and types of relief grants and rehabilitation advances made to rural relief families and of the social characteristics of relief and rehabilitation households, including such items as age distribution, size of households, family composition, employability, etc. Attention in this section was given also to the usual tenure status of rural relief families and rehabilitation cases, changes in their occupation, and also to differences in the amount of land cultivated, the ownership of livestock, and the number of years of farm experience. Some time was also given to relief trends from 1933 through 1935, emphasizing such factors as the geographical and occupational redistribution of relief cases and the extent to which new cases were added to the rolls during the period, and that to which separations from the rolls were possible through reemployment in industry.

The final chapter deals largely with programs of reconstruction, that is, the readjustments in farming enterprise, population redistribution, and programs of land use which may possibly prevent the recurrence of another situation responsible for the heavy rural relief roll prevailing during

the present emergency. It is pointed out that such a large number of families differing in family composition, education, age, experience, and employability can not all be dealt with by any uniform, single-track program. For this reason, various types of activities in the program of reconstruction are suggested. Broadly these fall into three major divisions—namely, economic reconstruction, social reconstruction, and a partial solution, at least, of the problems connected with farm tenancy. Specifically the factors suggested under economic reconstruction are (1) part-time farming, (2) submarginal land retirement, (3) soil conservation, and (4) crop control. Programs involved in social reconstruction (varying with the needs of individual families) are (1) direct relief, (2) work relief, (3) rural rehabilitation, (4) a definite population policy, (5) feasible agricultural co-operation, and (6) the establishment of rural institutions and services conducive to higher standards of living.

Finally there is an effective plea for a broad, long-range national program outlined by intelligent leaders trained in planning and guided by a consistent governmental policy.

C. A. WILEY

The University of Texas

Rich, Wiley Daniel, *The Legal Responsibilities and Rights of Public Accountants*. (New York: American Institute Publishing Co. Inc., 1935, pp. 233.)

*The Legal Responsibilities and Rights of Public Accountants* is a splendid collection of cases and legal principles affecting the work of public accountants. The treatment is essentially that of a lawyer. Technical phases of the law are fully developed. In many of the detailed analyses the legal points are perhaps of greater interest to the lawyer than to the accountant. Legal principles of general application have been combed and those applicable to the accountant and his work are set forth even though they may never have been the subject of consideration in a case involving a public accountant. This feature is valuable inasmuch as it affords a guide to the accountant which should enable him to avoid pitfalls that might lead to lawsuits, and it may be equally helpful in assisting an accountant to decide as to his rights and the probability of his proving them. High points in the author's treatment of the subject, include many interesting observations concerning adjudicated points of law and the precedents which are building up a body of law affecting accountants.

The observation is made that the greatest legal developments of the responsibilities of public accountants came about in the depression periods of the last half century. It is pointed out that a public accountant's liability to his client for negligence, would usually involve a breach of duty emanating from a contract and does not fall under the realm of tort. It has been established as a legal principle that it is the duty of the accountant to inquire into the substantial accuracy of accounting reports, not merely the arithmetical accuracy thereof; however, the auditor is not expected to guarantee that the books show the true financial position of an unliquidated

business. It has also been well established that it is not the duty of the auditor to take an inventory of stock in trade where he is certifying to a balance sheet containing such items. This would be the case only in the absence of suspicion of dishonesty. In the United States the auditor owes no common-law duty to the stockholder to reveal existing secret reserves. In England he is expected to reveal them but not in detail.

The author discusses and analyzes at length, the parts of the U. S. Security Acts affecting accountants. The famous *Ultramares* case is cited and analyzed, in which case it was held that an expert is guilty of fraud if he gives an opinion when he has nothing on which to base an opinion. The author recommends a new doctrine in regard to negligence of an accountant in giving gratuitous service to third parties. While an accountant owes a duty of care and skill even in those cases, the author feels that that duty should not be as great to the third party as it would be to the client who pays for the service. Nearly half the states of the Union have statutes making public accountants criminally liable for fraud. In Texas the liability is limited to the certified public accountants.

State Boards of Accountancy are supreme in the granting and revoking of certified public accountant's certificates. The courts are slow to substitute their judgment for that of the Board except where it is indicated that the board is unreasonable. While no state has a law specifically providing for the publisher's responsibility for falsely advertising a person as a certified public accountant, the author feels that the general statutes covering false advertisements will probably cover that point, making it a misdemeanor to publish such false advertisements. The author points out that certain states have enacted laws restricting public practice to certified public accountants, all of which have been declared unconstitutional. A trend not developed by the author is represented by the Wisconsin case wherein a similar law was held constitutional and since that time at least one other state—Colorado—has enacted a restrictive law modeled after the Wisconsin law.

The courts have held that an expert accountant's testimony is an exception to the rules of hearsay and primary evidence. The courts are divided respecting the admissibility of an expert accountant's conclusions drawn from his audit, some holding that he must testify merely to facts found in the books, others, that he may express an opinion concerning them. There seems to be a tendency to admit the accountant's opinion concerning balance sheet values, and the accountant's testimony as to the solvency of a business has been admitted as competent evidence. Some states have passed laws specifically granting accountants the privilege of confidential communications. A Federal court in one instance has refused to recognize a state law as applicable to the Federal court.

The accountant, in common with other expert witnesses, cannot demand compensation in excess of a statutory witness fee according to the weight of authority, however many English decisions, and a substantial minority of American decisions, have held that he cannot be made to testify unless he is given a greater fee. It would seem that the accountant, in the eyes of the law, is subject to the same rules concerning contingent fees as the lawyer. On points such as this, any book on the legal responsibilities and rights of public accountants should develop the

difference between legal responsibilities and moral obligations.

The public accountant's working papers are the property of the public accountant and not the client because the relationship is contractual and the contractor is not the agent of his client. The author cites two Louisiana cases where the public accountant's income tax services were accorded a higher value by the court as representing legal service, than the usual auditing work of the accountant, which the court looked upon as clerical services. While the author did not say so, an accountant might well point to this as an evidence either of the egotism of lawyers who consider their profession superior to others, or to the lawyer's ignorance of the accounting profession, the academic preparation for which is substantially equal to that of law and the experience requirement much greater.

All in all, the book is a valuable summary of legal precedents and points of common and statutory law affecting public accountants.

CLEM W. COLLINS

University of Denver

Bingham, Robert Warwick (ed.), *Reports of Joseph Ellicott as Chief of Survey (1797-1800) and as Agent (1800-1821) of the Holland Land Company's Purchase in Western New York*, Buffalo Historical Society Publications, XXXII. Holland Land Company Papers, I, (Buffalo: Baker, Jones, Hausauer, Inc., 1937, pp. 435.)

The Director of the Buffalo Historical Society, Mr. Robert Warwick Bingham, is undertaking to publish in a number of volumes the Holland Land Company manuscripts, covering the years 1797 to 1835, which are now in the Society's archives. The present volume, marking the inauguration of that project, contains primarily Joseph Ellicott's reports through 1808 relative to the Genesee lands of the Holland Land Company, although the Company owned lands elsewhere in New York and in Pennsylvania, which, however, were supervised by other agents. The history of the Holland Land Company, based partly on these manuscripts, has already been told by O[rsamus] Turner, *Pioneer History of the Holland Purchase of Western New York* (1850), and more authoritatively by Dr. Paul Demund Evans, *The Holland Land Company* (1924). Accounts of Joseph Ellicott may be found in: Ellicott Evans, *Reminiscences of Joseph Ellicott* (Buffalo Historical Society Publications, Vol. II); Dr. G. Hunter Bartlett, "Andrew and Joseph Ellicott," *Buffalo Historical Society Publications*, Vol. XXVI, pp. 1-48, and in the same volume will also be found "Joseph Ellicott's Letter Books."

Robert Morris, obligating himself to extinguish the Seneca Indian titles, sold to the Holland Land Company in 1792-93 the greater part (about 3,300,000 acres, exclusive of lakes and ponds,) of the Genesee lands which he had purchased from the State of Massachusetts in 1791. On September 15, 1797, four and a half years after the Dutch purchase from Morris, the Indian titles were removed; and Joseph Ellicott, one of those who had been appointed to see that the Holland Company's interests were not jeopardized in the transactions, immediately undertook the work of

surveying the land, which, with several exceptions, was completed by the end of 1800. Joseph Ellicott, like his brothers Andrew and Benjamin whom he had aided in surveying the District of Columbia and in laying out the City of Washington, believed in making the surveys as accurately as possible. As chief surveyor of the Company's New York lands, he based his survey upon astronomical observations and the location of the various meridians. He made use of a special transit instrument constructed by his brother Benjamin. This type of instrument had first been used in America in surveying the Mississippi lands. In regard to the New York survey, Ellicott wrote "that [although] the Expence [\$63891.36] attending its performance may have exceeded the expectations of the proprietors it will be but Justice to myself to observe, that a business of such magnitude executed with so much Exactitude and permanency has never been effected in this country, nor probably in any other part of the World. And although the Expense of transacting a business of this kind in this permanent manner is considerably encreased . . . yet the result will eventually be found more economical than if it had been performed in the loose manner in which surveying has, to the dishonor of this Country, generally been Executed." (pp. 82-3, 125)

Settlement of the land began even before the surveys were completed (p. 104). The company had at first hoped to sell the majority of their land at wholesale and only a small portion of it at retail, but the necessity of a directly opposite policy soon became apparent; hence, the reason for the continuance of their ownership of lands in New York to 1835-36. At first, settlement of the Holland Company's Genesee lands did not progress nearly as rapidly as had been expected for a number of reasons: because Upper Canada was offering land at a considerably lower price (p. 164); because the emigrants from the older settlements "are generally that Class of People who are compelled by . . . the Pressure of Misfortune at Home to remove to new Countries in Hopes of bettering their Situation" (p. 161) and, consequently, are unable to make the initial down payment; because of agitation conducted by "Persons actuated with a Secret or avowed Hostility to Foreigners, of whom the Company are composed, conceiving their own Interest affected by their Success, have omitted no Occasion to prevent our Sales by the grossest Misrepresentations" (p. 163); because of the marked "Scarcity of Cash and low Price of Produce" (p. 164); and, finally, because those who return home "exaggerate the Account of Sickness" in the Genesee area that occurred late in 1801 (p. 164). Certain groups in New England played a prominent part in opposing the settlement of the back country, but by 1808 settlement of the Genesee lands was progressing more rapidly.

Ellicott's reports reveal that depth of knowledge and appreciation of the American peoples and the frontier conditions which were so influential in promoting the success of the Dutch bankers' speculation in western lands. It was his recommendations that were most often followed in determining the Holland Company's land policy and, from time to time, most often produced modifications in that policy. He encouraged the Company to change its system of land sales, to establish stores, grist and saw mills, blacksmith shops, salt works, court houses, goals, taverns, and even to promote internal improvements in the form of roads and canals

in order to facilitate the settlement of its lands. Besides being concise and detailed, accurately and clearly written, the reports represent wise, concrete criticisms and recommendations of a farseeing policy which took into consideration both the interests of the Company and those of the settlers. Finally, these reports, which the editor has so carefully indexed, contain a wealth of information on the social, the economic and the political conditions relative to the development and settlement of western New York.

JOSEPH MILTON NANCE

Kyle, Texas

Harvey, Ray Forrest, *Jean Jacques Burlamaqui: A Liberal Tradition in American Constitutionalism*. (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1937, pp. 216.)

In this work the writer has done the scholarly world a distinct service by making available a convenient summary and discussion of the work and influence of a too often neglected 18th century political theorist, Jean Jacques Burlamaqui. It is the author's contention that Burlamaqui deserves to be ranked with Montesquieu, Locke, and Blackstone as a primary source of political ideas expressed in our Declaration of Independence and Constitution. In the writer's own words his monograph has: "Placed Burlamaqui on equal terms with the conventionally recognized sources of American thought . . . Upon the evidence at hand, it may be concluded that Burlamaqui was as popular in America as any of the conventionally cited authorities, he was referred to almost as frequently as were they, and he set forth a better developed constitutional theory than any of them." (pp. 182.)

In developing his thesis Professor Harvey divides his book into two parts. The first section is devoted to a discussion of Burlamaqui's political philosophy, and its relation to the ideas and theories of the contractualist school. It is contended that Burlamaqui, unlike his 18th century contractualist contemporaries, is one of the first modern theorists to return to the Aristotelian concept of the naturalness of the state and to the view that the function of government is not negative but positive, in that it exists to promote the happiness of the individual citizen, not merely to restrain him from violent action against his fellows.

In the opinion of the reviewer this section is the weakest part of Professor Harvey's book. While much of the author's criticism of the contractualists is justified, still, in comparing Burlamaqui to them, he fails to distinguish clearly a fundamental difference within contractualist thought itself, namely, the distinction between the idea of a social compact, setting up society, and a governmental compact, establishing a particular form of state organization. This oversight has led him to minimize the fact that in the Middle Ages, while the governmental contract was widely recognized, the idea of a social contract, which transplanted man from the state of nature into civil society, was rarely, if ever, mentioned. To the medievalist as to the ancients, society was looked upon as natural to man, and the state itself, while necessitated by the Fall, and hence in a certain

sense artificial, was nevertheless conceded to be "natural" enough for a debased humanity. Indeed, the state was often looked upon as willed by God as the means by which man could progress towards ultimate redemption. It was only with the development of the contract school, and then for practical reasons which we cannot discuss now, that the idea of a conventionally formed society and a negatively conceived state found wide adoption. In this respect the author's attempt to ascribe to Burlamaqui the honor of re-discovering ancient political thought and of reintroducing it into the stream of western political consciousness is considerably weakened. Indeed, such a contention overlooks the great influence of classic theories on the development of medieval political ideas. Moreover the tendency towards constitutionalism, and the idea of a government limited by custom and usage, were both present in medieval theorizing. In short, while the author is quite correct in contrasting certain parts of Burlamaqui's teachings with those of Rousseau, Locke, and Montesquieu he fails to acknowledge the deep debt which the former owes to medieval political thought.

The second portion of the study is devoted to the influence of Burlamaqui's writings on the development of American political theory. This is undoubtedly the best portion of the work and displays careful and detailed research into the available sources. There can be little doubt, after reading this section in which the author presents a large amount of statistical information on the availability and use of Burlamaqui's books in this country, that these works were relatively well known and read by the founders of our nation. As a result it is maintained that certain of Burlamaqui's views in regard to the separation of powers, judicial review, and the restraining power exercised by a written constitution, were far in advance of those current at the time and that they served to augment and intensify similar doctrines which had already reached America. Especially is Burlamaqui's conception of the "pursuit of happiness" as an inalienable right of man shown to have been influential in the incorporation of that phrase into the Declaration of Independence. In this respect the author contends that the influence of Burlamaqui was unique and served as the basis for the development of what may be called "liberal tradition" in American constitutionalism—that is, the theory that the state exists to insure the individual happiness of its members, even though this may involve the modification of another right, considered by Locke and the other contractualists as inalienable, namely the right to property. The author finds this principle at the basis of the Jeffersonian view of the function of government, notes its decline once the forces of conservatism gained ground and turned to Locke and Blackstone for their theoretical foundations, and sees its reappearance in the present policies of the Roosevelt administration. Viewing the development of our constitutional system, Professor Harvey, while not denying the importance of the accepted sources of our political philosophy, finds the chief tenets of our political faith most completely and comprehensively treated in the works of Burlamaqui.

The book as a whole is well documented but reads at times too much like a doctoral dissertation. One occasionally feels that much of the detailed information in regard to the dissemination of Burlamaqui's works

in America might have been more conveniently incorporated into footnotes rather than into the body of the text. Many of the numerous quotations from Locke, Rousseau, Hobbes and Montesquieu, while of considerable interest, are so widely known that a passing reference to them would have been sufficient. A valuable bibliographical appendix of Burlamaqui's works is added, as well as a list of related sources.

Ultimately the chief value of the work lies in the fact that it makes readily available the main substance of Burlamaqui's thought and demonstrates the influence which it had on American development. A grant from the American Council of Learned Societies aided the author in the completion of his task.

H. MALCOLM MACDONALD

The University of Texas

Desmond, Robert W., *The Press and World Affairs*, with an introduction by Harold J. Laski. (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937, pp. xxv, 421.)

This book has eight chapters, the first two of which do briefly for journalism in the western world much the same kind of thing that Victor Rosewater did for journalism in the United States in his *History of Co-operative Newsgathering in the United States*. One cannot help noting the extent to which improvements in the techniques of newsgathering have been associated with the reporting of military events. Havas, Reuter, and Wolff in Europe, and the Associated Press and other cooperative agencies in America, are each described in turn, and many smaller organizations are listed or referred to. Each of the methods of transmission are described and illustrated, and their combined effect in reducing the importance of time and space emphasized. Much has been written about the development of the rotary press, but the importance of the mechanical inventions that have helped to transform the methods of dispatching news messages is quite as great.

The discussion of the news network is followed by that on the obstacles to the flow of news,—censorship, official and unofficial, and propaganda. A lengthy chapter on the news of the Old World describes in turn the characteristics of the press and the problems of the foreign correspondent in the principal news centers of Europe—London, Paris, Geneva, Berlin, Rome, Moscow, Vienna, and Madrid, as well as in the Near East. This is followed by a description of the news of the New World, covering Washington and the United States; Buenos Aires and South America; Havana, Mexico City, and Central America; and Montreal and the Dominion of Canada. Of especial interest in this chapter is the discussion of the press relations of the various Presidents during the past generation. After news in the Far East, there is a concluding chapter on autocrats of the press—the persons who own the papers, the persons who make them, and the persons who read them. The author believes that the great majority of newspapermen do not knowingly or wilfully distort the news, but they are obliged to make many decisions, with little time for study or consideration; they are human, and they may—and sometimes do—make mistakes.

"If newspapers can be no better than the men who make them, it is also true that newspapers can be no better than the persons who read them." On all sides, there is a lack of agreement as to what constitutes the public interest, hence the shaping of editorial policies designed to further that interest becomes a difficult and uncertain task. Frequently those who clamor most loudly for the truth do not actually want it—unless it serves their purpose. "The shortcomings of the press are many, but its potentialities are unlimited." The author's attitude is judicious and fair.

From the point of view of English style, the book is excellent. The author has succeeded in dealing with a very intricate subject without letting the mass of detail overwhelm either himself or the reader. The work shows a thorough familiarity with the literature of the field, and copious footnotes, in addition to an extensive bibliography, provides leads to those who wish to use them, on nearly every important point. There are forty-one pertinent and well-selected illustrations, so annotated that they make a substantial contribution to the reader's understanding of the subject. The index is usable and adequate for reference purposes. This is, indeed, a significant book,—significant for journalists, for students of public opinion and propaganda, for students of international affairs, and perhaps most of all, for the intelligent citizen who wants to know to what extent he can rely upon the accounts of foreign events that he reads in his daily paper. It presents clearly the differences between the free press of democratic countries and the controlled press systems of fascist countries.

W. BROOKE GRAVES

Temple University

Herman, Arthur, *Metternich*. (New York: The Appleton-Century Company, 1932, pp. 370.)

The author has succeeded in blending romance, intrigue, and diplomacy in an exquisite symmetry rarely attained in a historical biography. He traces the career of his subject through his youth, ascent, power, decline, and fall with supplementary chapters on him as a spectator and his place in history. As a youth Metternich was profoundly influenced by two of his history teachers, Koch, who planted in him a permanent faith in the "Balance of Power"; and Vogt, who instilled in him an eternal reverence for equilibrium. These became corner stones in Metternich's social and political system.

Metternich rose to power through service as a diplomat at Dresden, Berlin, Moscow, and Paris where the business of diplomacy, and gay romance filled his days. From Paris he was called to become Minister of Foreign Affairs for Austria. His career was marked from the beginning by a cautious policy of peace. He went so far as to hitch Austria to Napoleon's star until he was able to manipulate his downfall and the consequent ascendancy of Austria in European affairs. This he struggled to perpetuate by maintaining the status quo established by the Congress of Vienna. His method was by a concert of the great powers. To facilitate this he annexed France to the fringe of the Quadruple Alliance thereby

forming the pentarchial league.

The beginning of Metternich's decline in power is marked by the July Revolution in France. He saw the danger of its spread to adjacent countries and in order to check its menace he sought a close alliance with Russia. He tried to prevent the independence of Belgium and the consequent first break in the order established in 1815. Metternich was defeated in his attempt to prevent the nationalization of the Swiss Confederation and he was defeated again by the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi which virtually gave Russia a protectorate over Turkey. This he attempted to counteract by an agreement with Russia to preserve the integrity of Turkish territory in Europe.

The death of Emperor Francis I, the lack of ministerial responsibility under his impotent successor, Ferdinand I, and Metternich's ineptitude brought Austria to the brink of dissolution in 1848. During the revolution Metternich was forced to flee Austria and spend the next three years in exile. These were spent in England and Belgium while he whiled the time away as a self-controlled but not disinterested spectator. Many of his former contacts—including those of some of the mistresses of his better days—were renewed. In 1851 he was permitted to return to Vienna. He never again entered active public life. The young Emperor Francis Joseph, however, frequently sought his advice and heeded it less frequently.

An accurate estimate of Metternich's place in history and of Herman's work is extremely difficult. Herman has shown how Metternich took the helm of state and raised Austria to a first rate power, how he maintained peace during the period of his control and thereby preserved the equilibrium of the European state system. But a valid appraisal of Metternich's work would involve a careful consideration of the relative merits of an extremely conservative monarchical system based on the maintenance of the status quo in contrast with nationalism and democracy with its consequent extension of privileges and liberties to the common man.

AUSTIN L. VENABLE

University of Arkansas

Nye, Captain W. S., *Carbine and Lance, The Story of Old Fort Sill*. (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937, pp. xviii, 441.)

In all the Southwest probably no locality is associated with more adventure than that just east of the Wichita Mountains, now marked by Fort Sill and the town of Lawton, Oklahoma. Near this place the Osages, in 1833, attacked an unprotected Kiowa village and slew its people; here, a year later, the artist Catlin drew sketches of the Comanches as Colonel Henry Dodge and his United States dragoons first made contact with them; and to this vicinity came the Choteaus and later Abel Warren to carry on a profitable but perilous trade with the fierce wandering tribes that claimed it. The place was included in the Kiowa-Comanche Indian reservation set apart by treaty in 1867, and Fort Sill, established two years later, became the center of Indian relations on the South Plains.

Fortunately Captain Nye's main caption is more accurate than his sub-title. He has done more than write the history of Fort Sill. Using this site east of the Wichita Mountains as a sort of base of operations he gives the history of Indian relations in western Oklahoma and northern Texas. He brings the white men into the country; he recounts the beginnings of Fort Sill and other military posts; he follows the cavalry through western Oklahoma and Kansas and Texas; he tells of the efforts of Indian agents to control their wards; and finally he takes the narrative of Fort Sill, its soldiers and its Indians into the twentieth century.

Not content with the formal records of white men, he has sought out Indians and recorded their own stories of the good old days when Cheyenne, Comanche, and Kiowa followed the buffalo or took scalps in Colorado, Kansas, and Texas. These Indian versions of escapades, raids, and battles are enlightening and always interesting. It may be that in some cases the author accepted Indian statements too readily. One wonders if the Indians told him that "the Wichita Mountains constituted a quasi-boundary" between the country of the Comanches and the country of the Kiowas, the Kiowas living to the north, the Comanches generally to the south of this line (p. 20). Also, is it on Indian authority that he states that the total population of these tribes after the cholera epidemic of 1849 was less than three thousand souls (p. 21)? There is abundant evidence that the Yamparika, the Kotsoteka, and the Quahadi Comanches were equally at home with the Kiowas in the country north of the Wichita Mountains and that the Comanches alone numbered nearly or quite three thousand as late as the Civil War. At any rate, the writer should have given some citation for statements so at variance with the authorities. These matters, however, are of no great consequence.

A more serious criticism is that Captain Nye apparently did not examine the reports of the United States Indian agents. An aggravating factor in the history of federal Indian relations was the eternal bickering between army officers and civilian Indian agents which made cooperation between the military and the Indian service impossible. This was especially pronounced in western Oklahoma where the fierce, nomadic tribes were placed under Quaker agents who insisted on a policy of peace when common sense dictated sterner measures. The author has chosen to follow the reports of the soldiers and has not escaped the traditional prejudice of army officers against Indian agents. Although an examination of the files of the Indian office would not have added many facts and might not have changed his point of view it would have been well to have read the agents' side of the story before criticizing them so severely. The Indian agents did not make all the mistakes in dealing with Indians in the Fort Sill country; the army contributed its share of blunders.

*Carbine and Lance* is, nevertheless, a delightful book. The monotony of gruesome tales of war and plunder is frequently broken by humorous incidents; narratives of campaigns are made less tedious by the insertion of descriptive passages vivid and sparkling. New light is thrown on certain Indian depredations and punitive campaigns by the troops; there is much material on the Indian in transition, after he had forsaken the war trail and was trying to follow the white man's road; and the history of Fort

Sill is the best account of a federal military post that this reviewer has read.

Skillfully organized, profusely illustrated, and forcefully written the book is a substantial contribution to the history of the Southwest.

RUPERT N. RICHARDSON

Hardin-Simmons University

Smith, William Carlson, *Americans in Process*. (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1937, pp. 359.)

Dealing with the Japanese and Chinese in Hawaii and on the Pacific Coast, the author of this book presents the problems of the most distant groups which have ever tried to adjust themselves to American life. For not only is Oriental culture widely different from the Occidental; its bearers are also of a different race. This fact gives rise to many obstacles in the way of the immigrant from the East which do not confront the alien from Europe. The Oriental's reactions to the situation are consequently more extreme than those of the European. In his efforts to succeed the Oriental will struggle with super-human intensity; if he fails, he may sink to the lowest depths of demoralization.

Many an Oriental, especially if he is young, has added to his handicap the bitterness of disillusionment. America has a reputation for being democratic, for giving equal opportunity to all men. Our literature is full of it. Children, the only real democrats, learn in school that it is an important, if not the chief, characteristic of our country. When an individual of a different race attempts to take his place in the social and economic order, however, he finds himself accepted or rejected, not so much on the basis of his ability as on the basis of his color. Those who suffer from this discrimination feel themselves the victims of a great injustice. They become in various ways maladjusted. They fail to recognize that their troubles are often due as much to class distinctions as to racial traits. They do not see that realization falls far short of expectation even for the vast majority of white people.

Sympathetically and understandingly, Professor Smith shows how the personalities of the Chinese and Japanese are molded by American culture. Analyses of the socio-economic environments which they have left, on the one hand, and which they have entered, on the other, indicate the nature and extent of the changes demanded by the processes of adjustment. Generous quotations from numerous life-histories give the reader an insight into the difficulties as seen by the subjects themselves.

*Americans in Process* is well-written, in an informal style, easy to read. It constitutes a distinctly valuable contribution to the literature of assimilation. But one fault does the reviewer find; the very interesting footnotes should have been placed on the pages to which they refer instead of at the ends of the chapters.

CARL M. ROSENQUIST

The University of Texas

Barnes, Harry Elmer, *A History of Historical Writing*. (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937. pp. xiv, 434.)

This book is "an introduction to the history of historical writing . . . , a survey of the development of the art and science of historical writing from the earliest days, to the present. An analysis of the different schools and philosophies of history ultimately brings the author to the cultural history of today and the critical scholarship of tomorrow. Such an herculean task has necessitated brevity and eclectic evaluation. Beginning with a sketch of pre-literary origins it covers practically all histories and historians who have made, in the past, any serious contributions. In our own day the field has so broadened that only the outstanding contributors are even chronicled. His selection within this contemporary group is of particular interest and the non-appearance of the names of many scholars of note may be a little disconcerting to the men themselves. Twelve pages to all the Greek and Roman historians seems inadequate but the information packed into every line redeems this necessary shortcoming. Some may object to the allotment of space to their favorites; at random I notice six lines to Francis Parkman and fifty-five to John Fiske; Herbert Bolton gets two while Marco Polo rates fifteen. The treatment is least satisfactory on the writers of the Middle Ages, where one has the feeling he is reading an index of names. Chapter XI on the historians of the World War is especially stimulating because provocative. Chapter X on scholarship in the United States today is well done; it should be read in connection with the final chapter on contemporary historical trends. This final chapter is the heart of the book; here Mr. Barnes analyzes the complete history (The New History) and the complete historian—the historian of the future, for no such creature is now alive. The New History, which is defined as "essentially the science of cultural reconstruction and institutional genesis" (386 and 392), is now fairly old, but the competent historian is an interesting paragon: he must be versed in languages, biology, psychology, sociology, anthropogeography, government, history, and have at least a working acquaintance with physiological chemistry and endocrinology: "No person unfamiliar with the glandular basis of human behavior can hope to interpret intelligently the conduct of men, past or present." (p. 389). This may sound absurd to some, but the author presents a rational argument; he holds that if the historian were trained like a doctor or engineer—in a special discipline—for the seven years usually spent in college and graduate school, he could secure the adequate understanding and master the necessary technique for the writing of history; instead he becomes the greatest living authority on the suspenders of Henry VIII.

This book is a serious one and is marked by the author's delightful candor. It has been critically read in MS. by competent scholars and deserves a hearty reception. Every social scientist should read the last five chapters both for instruction and stimulation. Natural scientists too, might read it with profit; they could at least discover what the social scientist is trying to do. College students will find it helpful in preparation for teaching and writing. The author promises to rewrite it when his

critics, and they will be many, point out his errors either of judgment or fact.

ALFRED B. SEARS

University of Oklahoma

Garver, Frederic B., and Hansen, Alvin Harrey, *Principles of Economics*. Revised Edition, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937, pp. x, 686.)

This revised text by Professors Garver and Hansen brings up to date an earlier edition by the same authors. The instability and rapid change of modern economic society make it very difficult for writers of textbooks in economics to keep their texts abreast with the times. Although the same general outline is followed as in the preceding edition, the chapters on value have been rewritten, as the authors state, to conform to new developments in the analysis of price under conditions of partial monopoly or imperfect competition. Changes have been made in the chapters on monetary theory, price fluctuations and business cycles.

The text is divided into five books: production, value, money and prices, distribution of wealth and income, and international economic relations. Many writers after dividing their books into the customary four parts add a fifth in which they dump the discussion of current economic problems. Sometimes they offer a solution, sometimes they leave the problems dangling in the air, knowing that there is little likelihood for economists to agree anyway. As the readers of this review have frequently heard, if all the economists in the world were placed end to end they would never reach a conclusion.

Garver and Hansen devote much space in Part II of Book IV discussing many current problems. They are classified under the general head "institutional aspects of distribution." There is not as much emphasis placed on public finance as one would find in some of the other texts. One chapter is devoted to "some economic aspects of taxation." In another chapter governmental budgetary policy as depression remedy is discussed.

Five chapters containing seventy pages are given over to a discussion of international economic relations. As important as public finance is in our economic life today it would seem as much emphasis should have been placed on it as on international economic relations. If there were space limitations to the text it would appear to this reviewer that public finance should have been given preference.

The text is designed for beginning students of economics at college level. It is a well-written and teachable text. There are some points where this reviewer does not agree with the theories proposed but this is no reflection on the book. Considering the present state of affairs, by what authority, anyway, has one economist the right to question the theories of another? What difference does it make what theories an author may expound in a beginning college text book on economics? Few of them will stick in the minds of the average sophomore. It is too much to expect the average college undergraduate to become steeped in economic theory

when relatively few college professors and fewer statesmen are aware of the trend of underlying social force.

LEONARD LOGAN

The University of Oklahoma

Clark, Carroll D., and Roberts, Roy L., *People of Kansas—A Demographic and Sociological Study*. (A Publication of The Kansas State Planning Board, 1936, pp. ix plus 272.)

Written by a professor of Sociology at The University of Kansas and a technical expert for the Kansas State Planning Board, this book represents an effort to make available data that have been gathered in order to provide a scientific foundation for state planning in Kansas. It is chiefly concerned with the "effort . . . to supply a background description and cross-sectional analysis of certain underlying factors that have had a basic influence upon the growth, changes, and present adjustments of the Kansas population."

The regional approach was employed in the gathering of data. Though recognizing the artificiality of state boundaries, the authors yielded to the pressure of practicality and accepted the state as a research unit. Within the state, however, they found it possible to ignore county lines and to emphasize "the sub-regions into which Kansas may be divided in order to facilitate an understanding of its demographic and sociological characteristics." Three regions (Eastern, Central, Western), the limits of which are held to have been empirically determined, were thus set up.

Three major factors are recognized as involved in any analysis of society—geographic setting, the population, and the culture. As indicated by chapter distribution, interest centers in the population. Seven chapters deal with the usual topics. One chapter is devoted to geographic factors and four are given to a consideration of cultural factors. The book concludes with a "Summary and Present Outlook".

So far as conclusions are concerned there is little that is new. The chief value of the book lies in the fact that it is a sort of "straw in the wind". The State of Kansas is undertaking to use social science as a basis for state planning. That is sufficient cause for rejoicing! Similar studies by other states should not only prove valuable to the separate states but should also facilitate data that will later be available for generalization on a national scale.

des Brunner, Edmund, and Lorge, Irving, *Rural Trends in Depression Years—A Survey of Village-Centered Agricultural Communities, 1930-1936*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1937).

*Rural Trends In Depression Years* gives an up-to-date picture of conditions in 140 rural communities. This study is particularly valuable because it covers the same area for the third time, and the work has been done for the most part by the same field staff. This means three factors can be learned with reference to these communities. First, the findings of 1936 can be compared with the two previous studies, the first one made in 1923-24 and the next one in 1929-30, and second, the effect of the de-

pression can be measured accurately and third, rural trends can be learned.

The conditions found in these communities may be said to be representative of our agricultural sections, since they come from the Middle Atlantic, the South, the Middle West and the Far West.

The reader is first given a picture of changing agricultural background and population, and then follows more intimate information on what has happened from 1930 until 1936, in the lives of the people who make up the farm and non-farm population in these rural sections in terms of changes in social organizations. The trends in village-country relations, in business and industry, in rural banking and in development of schools are shown.

The chapter on village-country relations is especially interesting. Here the suggestion is made that the village or town center should be called the capital of rural America because the farmers are making more use than ever of this center for education, religion, social life, professional services and for buying the necessities of life. The village now has the role of interpreter, explaining the city to the country and the country to the city. The friction between the farm and village people is decreasing as they are realizing that each has something to contribute to the happiness and well-being of the other.

The authors believe, and rightly, that the time has arrived for social-economic planning for the rural people. Why should the rural half of our nation be served with institutions and agencies that fall much below the average of those that serve our population? If our larger centers must depend on the rural sections for new blood, then these cities should be more concerned in the well-being of their future citizens. Some of the wealth of the cities comes from the rural areas and some of this should be returned by helping to pay costs or organizations that add to more abundant living for our rural population.

PAULINE THROWER

University of Oklahoma

Lancaster, Lane W., *Government in Rural America*. (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1937, pp. xi, 416.)

In contrast with the large number of descriptions and appraisals of municipal government that are easily available to the citizen and the student of government, the general literature relating to units of rural local government—primarily the county, the township, and the school district—is neither very accessible nor large. Although within recent years valuable studies of an official and private character have served to define the problem of rural local government in individual states, few writers have attempted to collate this material so as to present clearly the general problem as it exists in the United States today. Moreover, the difficulty of treating such a subject which, despite its apparent uniformity, varies in important respects from state to state has led most writers in this field to ignore almost entirely important economic, social, and psychological factors that should be evaluated and to stress the more formal

and at times legalistic aspects of rural government structure, procedure, and functions. Professor Lancaster's effort to treat all relevant factors in shaping and maintaining the present scheme of rural local government is therefore welcome.

As the author points out in the Preface, he has attempted "to construct a picture of government in rural areas as a going concern," and to keep in mind the fact "that government on the local level is an affair of the personal prejudices, ambitions, hopes, and aspirations of real people, who are immersed for the most part in other matters, and who give but a spasmodic and not always well-informed attention to the business of governing themselves." The result of this attempt is an up-to-date analysis of rural government that is readable and interpretative, that tells an interesting story at the same time that it describes.

J. ALTON BURDINE

The University of Texas

#### BOOK NOTES

Robert K. Carr's *State Control of Local Finance in Oklahoma*, (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937, pp. 269) should be read by all who are interested in the perplexing problem which has to do with correlating and controlling the financial policies of overlapping units of government without destroying essential local autonomy. The problem, as it is related to state-local government relations, has received no more meritorious treatment. He gives detailed consideration for the period from 1931 to 1935 to the legislative control by the state of Oklahoma over the financial policies of its local subdivisions of government, namely, 77 counties, 512 statutory and charter cities and towns, and 4,816 school districts. Besides drawing on the constitution, statutes, and court decisions for his information, he presents much material of great interest that was gathered by personal interviews and correspondence with public officials. He concentrates attention upon the functional aspects of state agencies of control. The functions with which he is concerned are assessment of property, budgetary procedure, indebtedness, accounting and auditing, and grants-in-aid. The agencies with which he is concerned are: Oklahoma Tax Commission, State Board of Equalization, Court of Tax Review, Attorney General (Bond Commissioner), State Examiner and Inspector, and County Equalization-Excise Boards. Criticism and recommendations concerning specific agencies and their work, he appropriately places throughout the book. In general he concludes with reference to Oklahoma that there is an absence of any single central aim of underlying purpose except the spoiled child-all wise parent attitude; that many phases are inconsistent with the idea of self-government, though better to error in the direction of the state; that there should be a simplification of agencies, especially control over assessments should be united in one state department of local finance manned by appointive experts; and finally that the proper solution of the problem is predicated upon a consolidation of local units—a reorganization into 25 counties.

I. J. S.

*The Process of Change in the Ottoman Empire*, by Wilbur W. White (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1937, pp. ix, 315), is a case-study of the disintegration of empire. To facilitate the handling of so complicated a problem the author gave rather detailed treatment to Egypt, Greece, and Iraq, these entities representing respectively the African, the European, and the Asiatic parts of the empire. The other areas of each continental portion of the empire received only summary treatment. The study was developed to show both the forces and the methods, both the historical and the legal processes, of change. In the African portion imperialism thus far has proved to be the major force, in the European, self-determination, and in the Asiatic, a balance of these two. As to methods and legal aspects, changes prior to the World War were brought about primarily by war and illegality, in the face of a static condition of law and treaty that provided no avenue of peaceful change. Since 1919 the changes have been, for the most part, peaceful, illustrative of the post-war processes of non-violent adjustment provided in the League system and the new treaty structure for both justiciable and political problems—conciliation; arbitration and adjudication; international legislation, e.g., relative to the Straits and to the capitulatory regime in Egypt; and the mandatory system, illustrated by the peaceful change in the status of Iraq. The author has done a commendable job both of analysis and of synthesis. Unhappily these hopeful beginnings in the application of something approaching the spirit of Article 19 have not been followed up by the Great Powers elsewhere, e.g., in Ethiopia, Austria, and China.

C. T.

Melvin M. Knight, in his *Morocco as a French Economic Venture* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, pp. x, 244), presents an excellent case-study of open-door imperialism. After an exhaustive examination of a vast quantity of documentary and other material, supplemented by careful, first-hand investigation, he shows that the "open-door" in Morocco has not prevented the ascendancy of French economic and political control; that Moroccan "prosperity" has depended upon exceptional situations, such as the state phosphate monopoly, war, and French grants for development; that the colonizing system has meant the virtual taking of the best land from the natives for the benefit of French colonists; that the relief program has been administered primarily in the interest of the French colonists; that the economic and financial administration has tended to favor the French investor at the expense of the French taxpayers and consumer; and that, much like the English in their empire, an aristocratic Moroccan element has been tied by the usual bonds to the French system. In short, the protectorate has proved a heavy burden upon most Frenchmen and most Moroccans, but perhaps advantageous to a few of both. Yet Leftist France no less than Rightist seems inclined to let it go or fundamentally to alter its status. The author offers no solution but does suggest that ultimate independence, after a period of tutelage, may be the way out of the dilemma. There is a definite need for similar case-studies of imperial possessions all over the world.

C. T.

After an interval of some years the second volume of Dr. Ramon de Castro Esteves' notable work, *Historia de Correos y Telégrafos de la República Argentina*, (Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de Correos y Telégrafos, 1938, pp. 440), has appeared. Like the first volume, previously reviewed in this *Quarterly*, it is splendidly illustrated by Señor Almadeo dell' Acqua. It would be difficult to speak too highly of this work, both as a piece of painstaking research among the archives and other sources of Argentina and as an example of the excellent type of social history for which Argentine scholars of Dr. Esteves' calibre have been responsible. The period covered by this volume is that from the establishment of the postal system in the Río de la Plata to the end of the colonial era in 1810, a period of more than fifty years. The various developments of postal routes and methods of transportation by horse, carriage, and river and coastal boats are traced. The extension of the system to Uruguay, to Paraguay, and to Potosí and the incorporation of the system under the royal patronage in the reign of Carlos III of Spain are described. The pictures as well as the text make graphic and interesting the account of the great difficulties and dangers of developing mail routes over such great distances in so wild a frontier country as was Argentina in the eighteenth century. The pictures of the various types of mail conveyances and of the governors of the province and of the heads of the postal system during this period are a valuable part of the work. Generous indices, which are not common in Latin American books, and a good bibliography are a part of the facilities of this volume. It is to be hoped that Dr. Esteves will be able to publish the remaining volumes of his fine work at an early date.

L. L. B.

*English Constitutional Documents Since 1832*, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, pp. xi, 226), edited by Eugene Morrow Violette, is designed to serve as a supplement to Adams and Stephens, *Select Documents of English Constitutional History* (1066-1885). Although there is some overlapping as to time, much new material is introduced in the present volume for the period—1832-1885. The selection is excellent. The book should prove to be as useful for students of political science as for the students of history for which it was intended.

O. D. W.

John P. Senning's *The One-House Legislature* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937, pp. xviii, 118) with a Foreword by Senator George W. Norris, is a most timely, practical, and useful volume for all who wish to inform themselves on the subject of the unicameral legislature and who wish to know something of Nebraska's recently launched experiment with such a lawmaking body. An excellent general treatment of the problem of unicameralism v. bicameralism is to be found in chapters I, IV, and V. Chapter II contains a summary of the history of the movement in favor of the single-chambered legislature in the states, and chapter III presents a full account of its adoption and operation in Nebraska. Professor Senning played a very prominent and useful part in helping to realize and to work out the details of this reform and, hence, is well qualified to speak with authority on the subject.

O. D. W.

Many debate manuals devoted to the subject of the unicameral legislature have recently appeared, but few have attained the quality of Thomas A. Rousse's *Bicameralism vs. Unicameralism* (New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1937, pp. xii, 238). In fact, it is much more than a mere aid to debaters. Only the first fifty-nine pages are given over to elaborate affirmative and negative briefs. The remainder of the volume consists of well-chosen source materials taken largely from the works of leading political scientists. This, together with the lengthy bibliography, renders the book very useful for reference purposes to students of government.

O. D. W.

*Government in Fascist Italy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938, pp. xii, 158) by H. Arthur Steiner with a Foreword by Fritz Morstein Marx is a strictly up-to-date, well-written, and authoritative description and analysis of the Fascist regime in Italy. While theory and concrete institutions are clearly set forth, the chief merit of the book consists in its realistic treatment of the actual workings and problems of the Fascist government. Particularly illuminating are the writer's treatment of the part played by the Fascist party, the present status of the *Statuto*, the exercise of the legislative function, and the operation of the intricate system of economic control.

O. D. W.

Angel S. Caballero Martin's *Las Corrientes Conquistadoras en el Río de la Plata* (Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Argentina, 1937, pp. 69), is an essay in social history, in fact in human ecology, explaining the shift of the routes of conquest in Latin America from the Isthmus and west coast to the east coast, the greater difficulty of conquest from the east, the centering of conquest in the upper Parana (in Paraguay), the ease with which the conquests were made. It is also in some degree an apology for the Spaniards in terms of their cultural contributions to the Indian civilizations. This last feature is the weakest and least acceptable part of an interesting essay in the newer type of history.

L. L. B.

*Universidad* (Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Santa Fe, Argentina, pp. 236, 1937) contains five research studies on the colonial and national and constitutional history of the Parana region of Argentina, and papers on Descartes' Discourse on method and library development. There is also an account of the university's public relations and services during the year 1937. This new university of the Litoral at Santa Fe and Parana is making rapid progress and is coming to rival its older sister institutions at Cordoba, Buenos Aires, and La Plata.

L. L. B.

*La Educación Pública en la Constitución Argentina* (Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Santa Fe, Argentina, 1938, pp. 29), by Horace C. Rivarola, gives, in the form of a popular lecture, the social theory of education for the practice of democracy as it is embodied in the Argentine constitution.

It should not be surprising that this theory is decidedly Jeffersonian, since the Argentine constitution was modelled largely on our own theory of government.

L. L. B.

*Sobre Teatro y Poesia para Ninos* (Universidad del Litoral, Santa Fe, Argentina, 1938, pp. 54), by Fryda Schultz de Mantovani, presents the purpose of the children's theatre and dramatics as that of social education and offers a short play in verse entitled "The Soul of the Clock". The play has a moral, for it details the family history and aspirations over which it has watched through a long period of time.

L. L. B.

*Los Corsarios de Buenos Aires*, by Lewis Winkler Bealer (Imprenta y Casa Editora "Coni", Buenos Aires, 1937, 267 pp.) is an interesting example of the growing community of research between scholars in the United States and those of South American countries. The work covers the period of 1815-1821 and deals with the privateering and other activities of the pirates in the wars of independence. These operations extended as far afield as Europe and the West Indies and were not wholly unlike the privateering activities of some of our vessels during the Revolutionary and second British war. The international relations growing out of these exploits, with both the United States and European countries, are treated. The two admirals, Brown and Bouchard, are presented in some detail. The author is a North American, owing much to Argentine sources and scholarship. The work is issued by the Instituto de Investigaciones Historicas of the University of Buenos Aires.

L. L. B.

Agustin Zapata Gollan's *Las Puertas de la Tierra* (Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Santa Fe, Argentina, 1938, pp. 140) is a very popular and readable account of the opening up and settlement of the Litoral, or country on the Parana river around Santa Fe. The author tells the story of the conquest, of the settlement of Paraguay and of Buenos Aires, and of the later development of the Litoral, which was located at the cross roads between these two regions north and south and between the Peruvian settlements and those of the Banda Oriental on the West and East. The struggles against the natives and against hunger, to secure routes of commerce and a market, and finally to induce colonists to settle the rich agricultural lands, are detailed graphically and sometimes humorously. The latter is especially the case with the story of how 200 "gringo" or Yankee families were induced to settle in this "land of the Indians", as they supposed.

L. L. B.